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CASSELL'S  
HISTORICAL READERS

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THE HISTORY OF ENGLAND  
FOR  
ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS

PREPARED TO MEET THE REQUIREMENTS OF THE  
CODE OF 1882.



FOR  
STANDARDS V, VI, VII.  
1883.









CASSELL'S READERS FOR ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS.

THE  
HISTORY OF ENGLAND  
FOR  
ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS.

For STANDARDS V., VI., VII.

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*ILLUSTRATED.*

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(IN ACCORDANCE WITH THE NEW CODE OF 1882.)

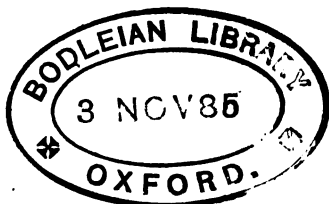
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## PREFACE.

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"THE HISTORY OF ENGLAND FOR ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS" has been written to form the Historical Reader for Standards V., VI., VII., required by the Code of 1882, and also a text-book for the study of English History as a *Class-subject*.

The frequent practice, authorised by the Code, of grouping the Upper Standards for instruction and examination in 'Class-subjects, has led to the inclusion of the whole of English History in this single book; but where the Standards are taught separately, class-work may be begun with the foundation of Parliament (p. 131), or with the commencement of modern political movements at the Revolution (p. 274).

Since it is the intention of the Code that the Reading-books used in the Upper Division should present a certain standard of difficulty, and that the class-subject should be taught orally, the common expressions of history and politics have been introduced, while their explanation has been left to the teacher. It is intended that the teacher should avail himself of the outline of facts here narrated, to amplify it at every point, to question the pupils upon the knowledge already gained from the earlier Historical Readers, and where he thinks fit, to illustrate the circumstances and the characters introduced from his own knowledge and from standard works.

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THE  
HISTORY OF ENGLAND  
FOR  
ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS.

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Part I.

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CHAPTER I.

PRIMITIVE BRITAIN.

1. The southern half of our island had been inhabited long before the time of the Britons, who are the people we find dwelling here when the written history of our country begins. From ages far beyond the ken of history race has succeeded race in Britain, each overcoming the previous inhabitants by its greater energy and more formidable weapons; so that within our own island we can see the slow steps by which mankind has advanced from the life of a mere savage to the civilisation of modern times.

2. **The Four Ages.**—Over all Europe and a great part of Asia there are traces of a series of races following one another in a set order, each race being sharply marked off from that which preceded it and that which followed it, by the materials of which it made its weapons and implements. These ages are

called respectively the Old (or unpolished) Stone Age, the New (or polished) Stone Age, the Age of Bronze, and the Age of Iron.

3. **The Old Stone Age.**—Of the first race of men that inhabited Britain, comparatively little is known. They lived here at a time so remote that in their days our island was joined to the continent, while the Thames, the Rhine, and the Elbe all united their streams to form one vast river, which poured its waters into the North Sea. The land was probably a dense forest, and the climate for long periods alternately much hotter and much colder than now. According as the seasons were warm or chilly, the antelope, the fallow-deer, and other animals of the south, or the woolly elephant and the reindeer from the north, held the land in possession.

4. Amongst these, hardly superior to the lion and hyena with whom they had to struggle for such poor shelter as the limestone caves could give, a few wild men roamed the dense forests, armed with rough weapons of unpolished flint. A coarse savage, clothed with the furs of slaughtered animals, rubbing bits of wood together to make a fire, cooking his food by placing heated stones in the water till it boiled, and adding to the fierceness of the projecting jaw that nature gave him by a free use of red paint—such was the man of the *Old Stone Age*. But the relics we find within the caves which he inhabited show that he could carve the handle of his rude stone dagger into the figure of the reindeer from whose antlers it was made, or scratch on the same material his own naked form creeping up among the brushwood to pounce upon the feeding ox. This race seems to have passed away from Britain without leaving any descendants behind it.

5. **The New Stone Age.**—When we next catch a

glimpse of Britain, we are face to face with a new people, far more advanced in civilisation than the last. The country is now an island. Here and there, instead of the unbroken forest we saw before, there



KINDLING FIRE IN THE STONE AGE.

are clearings in the fir woods ; and in these clearings barley and wheat are grown for food, and flax for the women to spin and weave into clothes. Round the homes of the new-comers—for they have homes, though they are but circular pits, dug some seven feet into the ground and gradually increasing in size from the



top to the bottom—the ox and the sheep, the swine, the goat, and the dog are feeding. They have long before trained the chief domestic animals to the service of man, and have brought them with them from their earlier dwellings in Asia to the new land in which they are now settled. They had learnt how to protect themselves from their enemies by huge ramparts of earth, and they knew the art of boat-making, for they crossed into Britain in canoes hollowed by fire and axe out of the trunks of trees. They had some idea of a future life, and reverently buried their dead. Immense stones were set up edgeways, with one of still greater size for a covering on the top. Underneath this roof they placed their departed kinsman, and close by they set clay vessels and small models of the things he most valued when alive, to be of use to him in the unknown world to which he had gone. A small race, whose men averaged five feet five inches in height, with dark hair and complexions, long heads, straight noses, and low foreheads—such were the people who, from their use of polished stone weapons, often beautifully made, are called the folk of the *New Stone Age*. Their descendants are most likely still to be found in the dark-haired people who dwell in South Wales and west of the Shannon in Ireland.

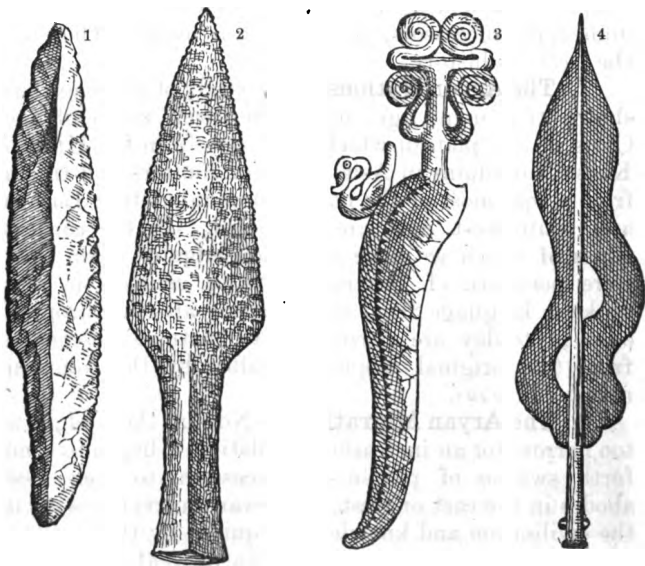
6. **The Bronze Age.**—This race was destined to disappear, or to be driven into the mountainous west by a new race, who had discovered how to smelt tin and copper and combine them into *bronze*. They were far taller than the earlier inhabitants, averaging five feet eight inches in height; and before the keen edge of their bronze weapons the stone-tipped darts and axes of the little folk could avail nothing. They frequently lived in wooden buildings built on piles, which ran out into a lake or swamp. They had learnt how to ornament pottery with geometrical designs. They knew the use of gold and amber, and worked them

into ornaments; their swords were of bronze, of a leaf-like shape, pointed, and double-edged; they burned their dead, and then buried the ashes in round barrows of earth. It was this bronze-bearing people that built, by means which remain to us a mystery, the wonderful temple of Stonehenge. To these new-comers, or their immediate successors, we can give a name. They are the *Celts* of history.

**7. The Aryan Nations.**—The study of language has shown that many ages ago there dwelt south of the Oxus, on the plateau which runs out from the Hindoo Koosh Mountains in Asia, a race of hunters and tillers from whom most of the nations now inhabiting Europe and south-west Asia are descended. In the earliest times of which we have any knowledge of them they were possessed of the rudiments of civilisation, and spoke a language from which nearly all the European ones of to-day are derived. All nations descended from this original people are called by the common name of *Aryans*.

**8. The Aryan Migrations.**—Now, as the land grew too narrow for an increasing population, it began to send forth swarms of people in succession, to seek new abodes in the east or west, each swarm carrying with it the civilisation and knowledge acquired by the mother-tribe before the parting. One swarm went eastwards, and there, mixing with an earlier race, became the ancestors of the modern Hindoos. The Celts spread westward, ever pressed on towards the ocean and the isles beyond by the *Teutonic* or German races in the rear, till they occupied what is now France, Spain, and the British Isles, driving before them, and perhaps partly mingling with, the peoples of the new stone age. The Teutonic peoples entered into possession of Central Europe and the Scandinavian peninsula, whilst beyond them to the east spread the *Slave* races, from whom the

Russians, Bulgarians, and Poles are descended. South of these races, in the two eastern peninsulas of the Mediterranean, a fourth branch settled—the fathers of the Greeks and Romans. It is important to remember



1. FLINT KNIFE (STONE PERIOD). 2. FLINT PONIARD (POLISHED STONE PERIOD). 3. DANISH KNIFE (BRONZE PERIOD). 4. LANCE HEAD (IRON PERIOD).

these last four great divisions of the Aryan people, because they have been the instruments of civilisation in all Europe, and seem destined to play the same part over the whole world.

9. **The Iron Age.**—In course of time the knowledge of *iron* and of the way to work it spread amongst these Aryan peoples. Bronze gave way before the yet more

formidable and more useful iron; and the Celts of Britain had, like the neighbouring peoples, advanced to the use of iron at the time when we first catch sight of them on the boundaries of written history.

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## CHAPTER II.

### THE ROMANS IN BRITAIN.

1. **Julius Cæsar.**—It is from the pen of the great Roman general, Julius Cæsar, that we first get any exact account of Britain. In two successive summers he crossed over from Gaul to punish the Celtic people of *Britons* who inhabited the land, for aiding their kinsfolk in Brittany to resist him. On the second occasion he marched inland from Kent, and, crossing the Thames, destroyed the capital of the Celtic king, Cassivelaunus, who led the native tribes in their resistance (B.C. 55, 54).

2. Cæsar found the Celtic towns to be mere enclosures of wattled huts. He describes the tribes of South Britain which fell under his own eyes as much more civilised than the people further inland, who seem to have lived by hunting, and to have clothed themselves with skins. All alike stained their bodies with the blue dye obtained from the *woad*, and went to war in chariots drawn by horses, and rendered more terrible by an iron scythe, which was fixed into one wheel.

3. **The Britons.**—These Britons, who dwelt on either side of the English Channel, belonged to the great Celtic family of which we spoke in the last chapter, but in the western parts the Celts were mingled with the earlier race, of which the Silures of South Wales were probably the actual survivors. Being Celts, their



customs and religion must have been similar to those of Gaul and Ireland—two countries from which we are forced to draw what little we know about the life and habits of the kindred tribes in Britain.

4. **Their Gods.**—They seem to have worshipped many gods, among whom the chief were—a god of merchants and trade, a goddess of industry and the useful arts, and a god of healing, Belenus, in whose honour the Druids, clad in white and crowned with oak leaves, cut down the sacred mistletoe from the tree to which it clung. But the most terrible deity was the war-god Teutates, at whose altars human victims were slaughtered with the knife, or burnt in huge figures of wickerwork.

5. **The Druids.**—The lawgivers and priests were called Druids. They foretold the future from the flight of birds, and possessed an immense influence over the rude tribes among whom they lived. Though acquainted with the art of writing, they are said never to have committed their learning to letters, lest by spreading among the people it should lose its mystery, and they the power which the knowledge gave them. They seem to have held that after death the soul of a man passed into the body of some other animal, and so went on through countless ages, changing the form of its existence, but never dying. Such doctrines they worked up into verse, and taught to the younger generation of Druids, who, it is said, not unfrequently took twenty years to complete their education.

6. **The Return of the Romans.**—Cæsar made no stay amongst the remote and barbarous people of Britain. But about a hundred years after, the Roman emperor, Claudius, determined upon the conquest of the island (A.D. 43). Bit by bit the Romans brought the land into subjection, till by A.D. 50 their dominion stretched from the Severn to the Humber.

7. The Roman general, Ostorius Scapula, proceeded to reduce all Britain south of the Firth of Forth under Roman rule. He secured the conquests of his fore-runners by a chain of forts running across the country to the Severn. Outside this barrier the British tribes were as yet untouched—the Brigantes to its north, the Ordovices in North Wales, and the Silures in South Wales. But within it, as we shall presently see, several tribes had not yet lost all hope of regaining their old freedom.

8. **Conquest of Wales and the North.**—The Silures of South Wales were the first to be attacked. Scapula overcame them, and sent their king, Caractacus, prisoner to Rome.

9. Cartismandua, Queen of the Brigantes, came to terms with the Romans; but many of her subjects did not approve of their queen's alliance with the strangers. The northern half soon placed themselves under the leadership of her husband, Venusius, with whom she had quarrelled, and waged war against the southern part, which adhered to Cartismandua and to Rome. Suetonius Paullinus, who was now the Roman general, perceived that his authority in this island would never be complete until he had once for all destroyed the Druids, who were the main supporters of all the native resistance. Hence he led his army to the north-west coast of Wales; and there, crossing over the narrow strait which divides Anglesea from the mainland, he slaughtered all the Druid priests, and cut down the sacred groves, despite the shrieks of the women, who, drawn up on the beach, with dishevelled hair and blazing torches, strove to strike fear into the hearts of his soldiers (A.D. 61).

10. **Boadicea's Revolt.**—But hardly was this work of cruel wisdom complete, when news came that all the eastern parts of the island were in revolt. Boadicea,

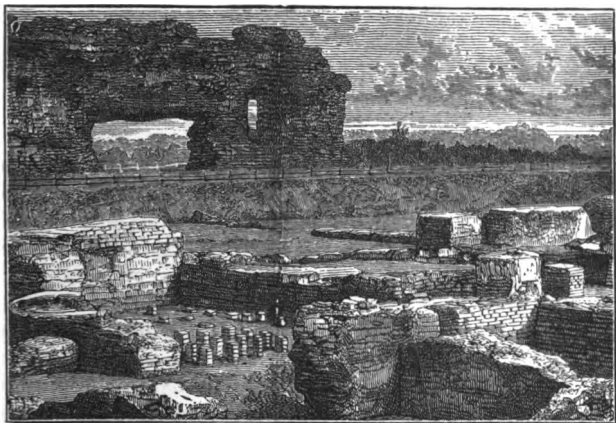
the Queen of the Iceni, stung to madness by the insults offered to herself and her daughters, and by the demands of the Roman tax-gatherers, had called her nation to arms. Other tribes soon joined her, and in a short time three Roman cities had perished in the flames, and their inhabitants, to the number of 70,000, fallen in their ruin. But a terrible vengeance was at hand. Without a moment's delay, Suetonius Paullinus swept down upon the rebellious Britons, who could make no stand against his legions, and the flame of rebellion was extinguished in blood (A.D. 61).

11. **Subjection of the Brigantes.**—The divisions of the Brigantes before long added their territories also to the empire. Venusius drove Cartismandua from her throne. She appealed to the Romans for help, which they were only too glad to give, and so entered into possession of the kingdom (A.D. 69).

12. **Agricola** (78—84).—As yet the conquest had been by arms alone; it was now to be confirmed by the arts of peace. A new general, Julius Agricola, one of the noblest characters in later Roman history, resolved to win over the wild people to Roman ways of life and thought by kindness and gentleness rather than by force. Accordingly, while still carrying on the work of conquest where necessary, and making his power firm in Wales and the north, as far as the Firth of Forth, he induced the British chiefs to lay aside their tribe life, and, adopting the Roman language, habits, and dress, to live in towns. Under him and his successors Roman civilisation, and with it Roman towns and villas, overspread the land. In its own degree Britain became like Gaul, where the old Celtic life passed utterly away; and before very long a country which, according to Cæsar, had in his time grown corn only in its southern parts, became one of the great granaries of the empire. It was Agricola's

fleet which first made sure that Britain was an island, and it was under this great general's direction that his conquests were secured to the north by a line of fortifications extending from the Forth to the Clyde, to shut out the untamed tribes beyond.

13. **The Roman Walls.**—All Britain south of this was now more or less under the Roman power;



ROMAN BUILDINGS AT URICONIUM, NEAR SHREWSBURY.

but the rude highland tribes outside kept constantly breaking through. At last (A.D. 120), under the emperor Hadrian, it was found necessary to strengthen Agricola's forts by a huge earthen rampart extending from sea to sea (now called "Graham's Dyke"), and to build a great new wall from the Solway Firth to the mouth of the Tyne. Ninety years later the Romans withdrew entirely from the country beyond this southern *Wall of Hadrian*, which became the limit of their dominion in Britain (A.D. 210).

14. **Introduction of Christianity.**—Christian mis-



sionaries had followed in the wake of the Roman armies, and many of the Britons who lived in the towns became Christians under the Roman rule; and from the time of Constantine, the first Christian emperor, Christianity became the State religion of Britain, as of all other provinces of the Roman empire.

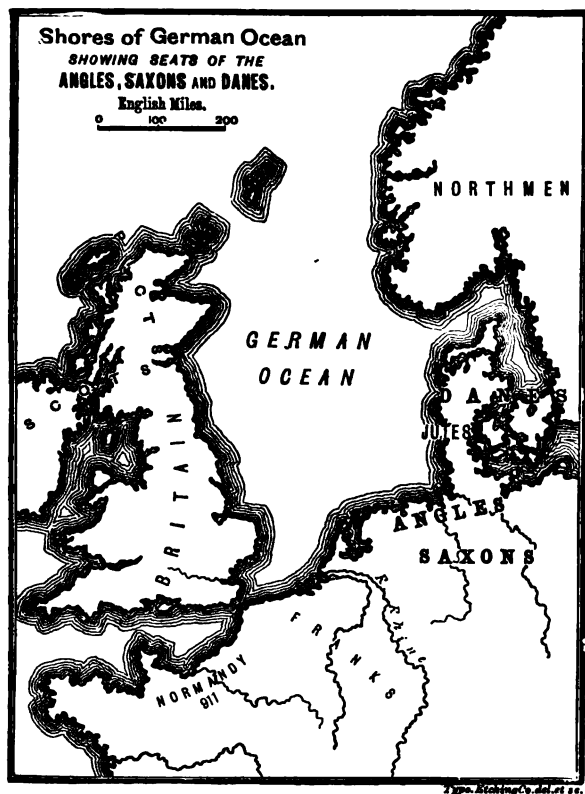
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### CHAPTER III.

#### THE COMING OF THE ENGLISH.

1. **The Roman Empire.**—For 400 years the Roman empire had extended over the south of Europe and the south-west of Asia. Its northern limits stretched from Hadrian's Wall in Britain, up the Rhine, and along the Danube. South of this every people had been crushed down and remodelled on a Roman plan. From the Atlantic to the Euphrates there was one form of government, one law, and one religion—that of Rome. To the nations it had conquered the empire had now given four centuries of profoundest peace. Over the whole face of this immense territory there had sprung up numerous cities, each modelling its government on that of Rome. But the peace was the stupor which precedes death. For all the land and the inhabitants were burthened by a taxation so excessive as to check natural growth and paralyse industry. The landowner could not part with his estate, lest the taxes due from it should not be paid into the imperial treasury; the tradesman and the slave could not leave the place where they were born, lest the personal tax due from each of them should be decreased. For the same reason it was forbidden to any Roman citizen to enter the Roman army, and the terror departed from the Roman name

when its legions were no longer drawn from the soil, but consisted of the rudest of the tribes that still dwelt



in the mountainous districts within her borders, or the hireling troops of the barbarians without.

2. **The Barbarian Tribes.**—Outside the great river-boundary of the north the Teutonic nations had long

been tossing like a sea, breaking every now and then over the barrier to plunder or to settle. In the year 395 the empire was divided, one emperor ruling at Rome and another at Constantinople. It was to the former of these that Britain belonged, and in about fifty years tradition records the landing of a new race of conquerors in our island.

**3. The Teutonic Migration.**—The Jutes, the Angles, and the Saxons, who next established themselves in Britain, were members of the Teutonic race, mentioned in the first chapter; and their descent upon our shores was but a part of a great migration of the Teutonic peoples into the provinces of the empire. One by one they broke through the line of fortresses which defended the great rivers, and settled in the rich countries beyond, where they were destined in time to establish new kingdoms and blend with the older races. The Goths passed into Spain, Italy, and the Danubian provinces, the Vandals into Africa, and the Lombards into the territory that still bears their name. Another tribe, the Burgundians, established themselves on either bank of the Rhone; while the Franks, the founders of the French nation, had already advanced to the Lower Rhine.

**4. Departure of Roman Troops.**—Amidst these great invasions Britain was abandoned by the Emperor, and the last Roman legion was withdrawn in the year 410. The civilised inhabitants of the British cities for a time attempted self-government; but they had been so long forbidden to enter the army and deprived of arms that they fell a prey to the Picts and Scots—the former probably the name given to the uncivilised Britons of the north, the latter a new tribe which had crossed over from Ireland and was gradually planting its foot on the west coast of Scotland, to which country it has given its name.

5. **The Teuton Sea-Rovers.**—It was in vain that the Britons appealed to Rome for help; the emperor there could do nothing for them; and, as a last resource, they turned their eyes to a race alien to themselves and to their kinsmen, the Picts and Scots, and, as the event proved, far more formidable than they.

6. The southern coasts of the North Sea were inhabited by the Teutonic tribes of the Jutes, the Angles, and the Saxons, which were known generally by the name of the last. Lovers of the sea, with long flowing yellow hair, and necks that had never bowed to slavery, they sallied forth, like the Danes and Norsemen of later times, in their long boats to plunder the wealthy inhabitants of the coasts of Britain and North Gaul. So serious had this evil been, that a special Roman officer, the *Count of the Saxon Shore*, had been appointed nearly two centuries before, to guard the coast exposed to their ravages.

7. It had been the established policy of the Roman Government to enlist barbarians against barbarians. The Britons imitated their former masters, and called these sea-rovers into the land to fight for them against the Celtic invaders.

8. **The Jutes.**—Accordingly, we are told that in the year 449 there landed in the Isle of Thanet three long vessels of Jutish warriors from the north of Denmark, under their leaders, Hengist and Horsa. They drove off the foes against whom they came to fight, but they liked the look of the land so well that they settled there themselves, driving out or killing the British natives. Thus was founded the first of the new Teutonic kingdoms of Britain—that of the *Jutes* in *Kent*.

9. **The Saxons.**—But so fair an example was not lost on the kindred tribes. The old story tells us that in 477 a body of Saxons, under Ella and his son Cissa,

landed on the south coast, and founded the kingdom of the *South Saxons*, or *Sussex*.

10. Twenty years later the Saxons founded another kingdom to the west. Two ealdormen, Cerdic and his son Cymric, landed in the modern Hampshire in 495. Step by step these new settlers fought their way, and extended their boundaries to the north and west. So powerful did they become, that after some twenty years' hard fighting, the two leaders took the title of king. Thus was founded the kingdom of the *West Saxons*, or *Wessex*, which was destined to absorb all Britain to the south-west, and finally to set its kings on the throne of all England. It is from Cerdic that our present Queen Victoria is descended.

11. The Saxons founded at least three other kingdoms; but of these there is little to be said. The kingdom of the *East Saxons*, or *Essex*, could never grow to any size, as it was shut in on the west by a great forest, part of which still remains around Epping, while the country to the north of the East Saxons was in time occupied by the Angles.

12. **The Angles.**—We have now come to the second tribe of Germans which has settled in Britain. This race was that of the Angles, or Engles; and as their settlements covered a much larger part of the island than the Saxon ones, they have given their name to the whole island.

13. North of Essex the Angles founded the kingdom of the *East Angles*, or *East Anglia*. The two chief divisions of this people were the *north folk* and the *south folk*, after whom the modern counties of Norfolk and Suffolk are named.

14. North of this, from the Humber to the Tyne, and from the Tyne to the Firth of Forth, lay another Anglian settlement, called, from its position, North-Humberland, or Northumbria. There are traces of

Saxon settlements also in this quarter, but they were swallowed up in the Anglians. The central part of this ancient kingdom has kept its old name to our days.

15. Last of all, after the kingdoms of Northumbria and East Anglia had been established, fresh bands of Angles pushed their ships up the rivers which flow into the Humber and the Wash, and occupied the country of *Mercia*, which means the *mark* or borderland upon the frontier of the territory still defended by the Britons.

16. **Comparison of Britain and the Continent.**—We have seen that the English conquest of Britain was but one of many migrations of the German tribes into the Roman empire. But in several respects it offers a striking contrast to the others. Elsewhere the newcomers were converted to Christianity either before or just after their settlement in the new lands. Besides this, they had for years previously been more or less acquainted with Roman civilisation, and stood respectful before a form of government so much more perfect than their own. These facts led them in France, Spain, and Italy to spare the people among whom they settled; they left the towns to them, while they themselves lived in the country. Few in numbers compared with the Celtic race among whom they were scattered, they gradually lost their distinguishing features, and mingled with the native races. The Franks became Frenchmen; the Goths, Spaniards; the Lombards, Italians; and all abandoned their Teutonic tongue for a debased form of Latin.

17. But in Britain there was at first none of this mingling of populations. The Jutes, Angles, and Saxons were untouched by Roman arts or faith. Unrestrained by any feelings of religion, or awe for a civilisation which could not protect itself and which they could not appreciate, they crushed out all opposition in blood. Town after town was burnt, the

native inhabitants—or *Welsh*, as the Teutons called them—were mercilessly slaughtered, or driven back into the western half of the island, which they still held, from the English Channel to the Clyde.

**18. Growth of Wessex.**—We must now rapidly glance over the early stages of the struggle. First, as regards Wessex. Under Ceawlin, in the latter half of the sixth century, the West Saxons reached Somerset. But all the west part of the island, from Cornwall to the Clyde, was still in Welsh hands. By the battle of Deorham (577), Ceawlin split this realm into two sections, and parted the Britons of *West Wales*, or Cornwall, from those towards the north by the capture of Gloucester and Bath. He even penetrated into the heart of the unconquered territory up the Severn, nearly into Shropshire, where the Mercians had not yet arrived. But the Saxons could not permanently keep their possessions north of the Thames. They gradually fell into Mercian hands.

**19. Growth of Northumberland.**—Of Northumberland we know little. It belonged to the Anglian stock, and, like Mercia and the other great Anglian kingdoms, seems to have originally consisted of more than one separate settlement of Angles, each led on to the conquest of the new soil by its own chieftain, till at last a great king, Ida (547), joined all the little tribes into one great kingdom, stretching from the Humber to the Firth of Forth. But within, this realm had always a tendency to split itself up into two divisions (*Bernicia*, to the north, and *Deira*, to the south), divided by the Tyne or Tees. It was Northumberland which struck the second great blow against the British power in the west—when Ethelfrith defeated the natives near Chester, and completed the work Ceawlin had begun by again splitting into two the territory Ceawlin had left them.

**20. Growth of Mercia.**—Meanwhile, in the centre

of the island a new kingdom was slowly forming. Even more than Northumberland, Mercia was a union of separate Anglian settlements, each of which kept its own king, or ealdorman, for many years after it had nominally submitted to the Mercian rule. These little tribes seem gradually to have worked their way south, from the shores of the Humber. The Gyrwas were in the Fen country round Cambridge and Peterborough; the Lindisfaras in Lindsey, or Lincoln; while the Mercians, from whom the whole district was afterwards named, held the march, or borderland, against an island, as it were, of Britons, which still, near Leeds, raised its head above the sea of the Anglian invasion. There were West Angles, and South Angles, and Middle Angles, these last being settled near Leicester. At last a great king, Penda (626—655), united all these tribes, doing for the Angles of Mercia the same work which Ida had done a hundred years before for the Angles of the north. But it was very long before these little settlements could entirely forget their old independence. Many still kept their own kings, or ealdormen, with something of the kingly power.

21. **The Smaller Kingdoms.**—At the end of the sixth century Ethelbert of Kent held the title of *Bretwalda*, which seems to have implied a kind of authority over all other English kings. But the earlier kingdoms of the sea-coast—Kent, Sussex, Essex, and East Anglia—though they took the lead at the outset, had not the opportunity of developing like Wessex, Northumbria, and Mercia. They were hemmed in by the forests and marshes which then cut off the east and south-east of England. They could not grow to be great kingdoms like the others, and so were eventually swallowed up.

22. **Germes of Unity.**—This period of our history to the final union of the English tribes is known





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as the *Heptarchy*, from the seven principal kingdoms (Greek, *Hepta Archai*) into which they were divided. When a powerful king arose amongst them, who made his authority felt amongst the other kingdoms, he was recognised as *Bretwalda*, the wielder or ruler of Britain ; and by this title we may see proof that the English settlers, in spite of all their wars, felt themselves to be one people. They fought, not to maintain their separation, as the Britons fought, but to decide under which of the kingdoms the English people should in the end be united.

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## CHAPTER IV.

### THE PLANTING OF CHRISTIANITY.

1. **Amalgamation with the British.**—The Britons were partly converted to Christianity under the Romans. But whatever knowledge of our religion the Briton possessed, he sullenly kept it to himself, while our forefathers were zealous worshippers of Woden, their God of War, and fierce enemies of the Christian faith. Accordingly it was from Rome that our forefathers received their earliest knowledge of Christianity, though, as we shall see later, the north of England was mainly converted by means of Celtic missionaries.

2. As yet the Englishman had slain the Briton, or driven him into the west. The two races had not shared the land between them. But with the opening of the seventh century a new era set in. The stranger learnt a new religion that taught him to show some mercy to the conquered race, and, as a consequence, in the western parts of the island the two races mingled more and more. In Cornwall and Wales the mass of the people remained chiefly of British blood.

3. **Ethelbert of Kent.**—At the end of the sixth century the greatest king in England was Ethelbert of Kent. He was styled Bretwalda, and his authority stretched over all the other English kingdoms as far as the Humber. He had married a wife from the royal house of the Franks, who were now ruling in Gaul; and she, being a Christian, had brought a bishop with her to her new home.

4. **Mission of Augustine.**—The ground was therefore prepared when, in 597, Saint Augustine, being sent by Gregory, the Pope or Bishop of Rome, to preach Christianity amongst the English, landed in Kent. On hearing of Augustine's arrival, the king bade him stay where he was for a time, till he could come into the island of Thanet, and meet him in the open air; for he knew nothing of these strangely-clad men, and feared lest in some close dwelling they should have power to enchant him. After meeting them, however, he felt sure that they could not have come on so long a journey for any evil purpose; and, accordingly, he granted them a house in his royal town of Canterbury, and thither the abbot and his companions marched along the straight Roman road, bearing the uplifted cross before them, and solemnly beseeching God to turn away his wrath from a land which had forsaken the true faith. Before long Ethelbert was baptised; his subjects were not long in following his example, and Augustine was consecrated Archbishop of the English Church, with Canterbury for his see.

5. **The Britons of the West.**—He now attempted to get the Britons to aid him in the work of conversion; but they would not give up their old religious customs, and Augustine withdrew from the conference, threatening the Britons, it is said, with speedy vengeance. The prophecy seemed to be fulfilled a few years later, when (in 607) Ethelfrith of Northumberland broke the

kingdom of Strathclyde into two parts at the battle near Chester. The king, seeing the British priests, weak from a three days' fast, standing aloof from the battle and praying for his defeat, bade his warriors slay them as well as his armed enemies.

6. **Spread of Christianity.**—It was not long before the example of Kent began to be followed outside its boundaries. Under the influence of Ethelbert the King of the East Saxons was converted, and a bishop appointed for London; and Redwald, King of the East Angles, built altars to both the old and the new faith. From that time forward Canterbury has been established as the head-quarters of the Church in England. A second bishopric was founded in Rochester, and in a little time Christianity was accepted by the Meeting of the Wise Men or *Witenagemot* of Kent as the religion of that kingdom.

7. Under the influence of the priests, the laws of Kent were drawn up in writing, with a few alterations, such as the altered state of things required. Special privileges hedged round the bishop, the priest, and even the lower orders of the Church. Large estates were granted for the service of God.

8. **Pagan Reaction.**—The new religion did not, however, establish itself without a struggle. The great Bretwalda died in 617, and a relapse seems to have set in not only in Kent, but in all the other kingdoms where Ethelbert's influence had penetrated. His own son fell back on the worship of his old gods, and married his father's widow—a heathen habit which the Church forbade. The young kings of Essex demanded the Communion before baptism, and East Anglia was losing her faith. The three bishops were in despair, and meditated abandoning their sees and fleeing to Gaul. It seemed as though the labour of years had been wasted; and, indeed, it was not till forty years

later that Essex once more received the religion it was now rejecting.

9. An old legend tells how the new Archbishop of Canterbury stayed behind after the other bishops had left for Gaul, and was scourged by St. Peter himself in a vision for thinking of forsaking his charge. Then (the story runs) the King of Kent, on seeing his bleeding back, at once renounced his idols and returned to his father's creed.

10. **Edwin of Northumbria** (617—633).—Meanwhile a great power had been growing up in the north. Ethelfrith of Northumbria had united the two kingdoms of Deira and Bernicia, which had parted on Ida's death. His successor, Edwin, ruled the north from the Forth to the Humbēr, and founded Edwin's Burgh, or Edinburgh, upon his northern frontier. Thenceforward, for almost a century, Northumbria took the lead amongst the kingdoms of the English. West of the Pennine range still lay the strong kingdom of the Strathclyde Welsh, though it was now parted from the Welsh of Wales since Ethelfrith's victory at Chester.

11. **Conversion of Northumberland.**—Edwin, who was in turn styled Bretwalda, married the granddaughter of Ethelbert. In process of time he received baptism from the hands of Paullinus, the bishop she brought with her, and his people followed his example.

12. The change of faith was finally determined on in a great Northumbrian *Witenagemot*, in which the chief pagan priest, Saint Coifi, was the first to renounce the old gods, "whom he served without reward," and to hurl his spear against the walls of their great temple. After this the new religion spread rapidly. Through Bernicia and Deira, even into the heart of Lindsey (Lincolnshire), which now seems to have been under Northumbrian rule, Paullinus travelled for six years, baptising the converts in the rivers when they were too

numerous for the ordinary font. A rude church was begun at York, and a more stately one of stone at Lincoln.

**13. Edwin's Influence.**—Under the influence of Edwin, Christianity revived among the East Angles, though the East Saxons hung back, and Mercia and Wessex still remained in stubborn Paganism. Penda, the heathen king of the Mercians, joined with the Welsh king, Caedwalla, in the hopes of destroying the rising power of Northumberland; and in this he succeeded for a time. The united hosts overthrew the great Bretwalda of the north at the battle of Heathfield and slew him (633).

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## CHAPTER V.

### THE STRUGGLE OF THE KINGDOMS.

**1. Christianity Arrested.**—For a moment it seemed as though the work of Edwin was undone. Caedwalla and Penda ravaged Northumberland together, and Paullinus, with his fellow-monks, fled southwards. The Christian movement, which originated in St. Augustine's mission, was arrested on every side. It was reserved for the Celtic Church to water the seed which the Roman Church had sown.

**2. Oswald of Northumbria (634—642).**—After a period of disorder, Oswald, the son of Ethelfrith, reunited under his rule the Northumbrian kingdom of Edwin, and at once sent over to Iona, the sacred island of the Celtic Church, for assistance in restoring the country to Christianity.

**3. The Conversion of the Celts.**—In the latter quarter of the fourth century Ireland had been converted

by a British preacher, St. Patrick by name. From this time, for several centuries, Ireland was one of the chief seats of Christian learning in the west. English princes and Gaulish saints alike went to its monasteries, to enjoy the quiet study which their own disordered lands could not afford; and in the ruin that fell upon Britain, the Irish preserved the faith and the civilisation which they had received from the sister-isle.

4. **The Celtic Mission to Britain.**—At last, in the sixth century, St. Columba left his native land to revive the faith among the kindred tribe of Scots, who, as has been already said, had, a century or two before this, settled on the western islands of what is now called Scotland. Establishing himself on the island of Iona, from this centre he began the work of converting the heathen Picts, and died there in the very year when Augustine first landed in Kent. The abbots who succeeded him long ruled the Celtic missions in North Britain.

5. **St. Aidan.**—It was from this great monastery of Iona that Oswald now received his new bishop, St. Aidan. A small island called Lindisfarne, lying off the Northumbrian coast, was set apart for retirement and prayer; and, with short intervals for this purpose, St. Aidan spent his life in the work of conversion. In the early days of the mission, Oswald himself would translate the Celtic sermons of the new bishop into the rough Anglian dialect of his people.

6. **Roman Mission to Wessex.**—Meanwhile an Italian bishop had begun to convert the kingdom of the West Saxons, and had founded his see in the royal city of Dorchester, near Oxford; for in those days the territory of Wessex stretched north of the Thames. The influence of Oswald doubtless helped to bring about the conversion of the West Saxon king, Cynegils, whose daughter he married.

7. But the forces of heathenism were still terrible. Once more the heathen Penda burst into the north, and slew the good King Oswald at the battle of Maserfield (642), again arresting the progress of Northumbria in its work of evangelising, civilising, and governing the warring kingdoms of the English.



THE MONASTERY AT IONA.

8. **Oswy** (642—670).—The confusion lasted till Oswald's younger brother Oswy prevailed against Mercia, and reunited Northumbria from the Humber to the Forth. Under his influence Christianity revived throughout the island. Penda, the fierce champion of Paganism, was slain in battle (655). For thirty years Northumbria became the great power of England, and the last hopes of Paganism were broken by the fall of the champion of the heathen gods.



**9. Triumph of Roman Christianity.**—One question, however, yet remained to be decided : which of the two Churches that had laboured for their conversion were the English to follow—the Celtic, which had chiefly worked among the Angles, or the Roman, which had won over the Saxons? At a great council held at Whitby, in Northumberland, Oswy decided that he would abide by the customs of Rome and the west of Christendom generally, and upon this the Celtic bishop and his followers withdrew to their own land (664).

**10. Theodore of Tarsus.**—As yet each great kingdom had its own bishop; but when, a few years later, a new archbishop, Theodore of Tarsus, came, he divided England into dioceses, following the lines of the original settlements of which the great kingdoms were made up. Theodore also arranged for Church councils to be held every year near London—a plan which, however, could not be carried out, owing to the confusion soon to follow on the downfall of Northumberland.

**11. Great Britain in the Seventh Century.**—Let us now take a glance at the state of our island. High over all other kings stands the Bretwalda Oswy, who has taken part of their territory from the Picts in the north. Besides this, the Welsh of Strathclyde and the Scots of the western coasts were to some extent subject to him. The influence of the Northumbrian king over the rest of England, though undefined, was well recognised; and Egfrith (Oswy's son and successor) was consulted by the King of Kent in the appointment of a new Archbishop of Canterbury.

**12. Fall of Northumbria.**—But Egfrith (the last Bretwalda before Egbert) perished in the great battle of Nechtansmere against the Picts (685). From this time the history of the north is little else than a record of deposed and murdered kings. A country so divided

could have no further influence in the affairs of south England. Another power was ready to take its place. This power was Mercia.

**13. Progress of Wessex.**—But before coming to the period of Mercian greatness we must say a few words about Wessex. Towards the end of the seventh century it had extended its boundaries by conquering the Isle of Wight from the Jutes, and later advanced its boundaries so as to cover all Somerset. But though advancing towards the west, Wessex was forced back on the north by the growing power of Mercia, which deprived her of Gloucester and her lands north of the Thames. With the loss of these lands it became necessary to move the West Saxon bishopric from Dorchester to Winchester.

**14. Ine (688—722).**—The most important king of Wessex at this period was Ine. He was the first of the West Saxon kings to draw up the laws of his people in writing. He was an earnest Christian, and in his conquests the Britons were no longer exterminated, but lived on in peace under his laws. At last, in 722, Ine gave up his kingdom, and, as other Saxon kings had done before him, went to Rome to die.

**15. Supremacy of Mercia.**—After Ine had departed to Rome there was none to resist the power of Mercia, which was the dominant kingdom during the eighth century. Æthelbald, King of Mercia, wrested from the hands of the West Saxons the last remains of their kingdom north of the Thames, and for a time held Wessex itself in subjection. He called himself "King of all the provinces which we call South-English." After him the Mercian power grew still greater under Offa (758—796), at first only the under-king of a Mercian tribe. Offa overpowered the West Saxons. He also conquered part of Wales west of the Severn, and made a great dyke from the mouth of the Wye to that of the

Dee, to guard his newly-won possessions. But he left no strong king to carry on his work. After his death the Mercian supremacy died away.

16. **The English Church.**—Meanwhile the nation was steadily advancing towards unity and civilisation under the influence of the Christian Church. The organisation of the English Church throughout the various kingdoms under one head—the Archbishop at Canterbury—knit them together. The clergy were always on the side of peace, and their synods accustomed Englishmen to the idea of a single national council. Most of the early preachers were monks. Besides the monks (or the *regular* clergy, as they are called, because they lived by the *regula*, or rule, of their monastic order), there were the *secular* clergy, or parish priests. Missionaries went out from the newly-converted lands to the kindred German tribes of the Rhine. English monks converted the Frisians; in Hesse, another—Boniface—overthrew the oak of Thor with his own hands, and established Christianity all along the banks of the Rhine, becoming the first Archbishop of Mentz (718—755).

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## CHAPTER VI.

### THE RISE OF WESSEX.

1. **State of Europe.**—While the warring kingdoms of the English were being gradually transformed into the English Nation, changes were passing over the world outside which were to have important effects upon the course of its history hereafter. In the year 476 the people of Italy deposed the western emperor, and the emperor at Constantinople thenceforth reigned alone. His rule, however, was only nominal in Italy, except in the southern half of the peninsula. The

northern plains passed into the hands of a new Teutonic tribe—the Lombards—from whom the country has taken its present name of Lombardy. Meanwhile the Franks became the strongest power in the West. They established a loose kind of authority over the other Teuton nations and the descendants of the Roman provincials from the modern Austria to the Atlantic, and from the Baltic to the Alps and the Pyrenees.

2. **The Saracens.**—Amidst the universal decay of the ancient Roman civilisation, and the subversion of the Roman Order, a new religion had appeared in the East, which has produced great and far-reaching effects in the history of England and the West. At the beginning of the seventh century (622), Mahomet proclaimed himself the Prophet of God in Arabia, and his faith spread east and west, from Hindostan to the Straits of Gibraltar. In 710 his followers crossed from Africa into Spain. They overthrew the Visigothic kingdom there, cooping up the few Christians who remained in the mountains of the north. There seemed nothing then to prevent the great caliph of the new faith, whose dominions stretched from the Indus to the Atlantic, from enslaving Europe and overpowering Constantinople. But this danger was averted by the great victory of the Franks at Tours (732), which thrust back the Saracen invasion within the Pyrenees. But it took 750 years to expel the strangers wholly out of Spain, and the warfare between the Christian and the Mahometan powers has continued from that time to our own day. From this England has for the most part held aloof; but in the Crusades, and during the last hundred years, even our island has been drawn into the struggle.

3. **Charles the Great.**—Towards the end of the eighth century order and civilisation began again to dawn in the West under the rule of the Frankish sovereigns. Charles the Great made his authority

supreme over all the Teutonic tribes, crushed down all local resistance, and ruled from the Bay of Biscay to the Elbe, and from the Baltic Sea to the Pyrenees and South Italy. Within these limits the land was governed firmly and well. Charles and his ancestors encouraged the priests and learning; they had protected Boniface in his labours among the tribes of the Rhine and Weser; and, in return, the English missionaries had upheld the authority of the new line of kings wherever they went.

4. **The Popes at Rome.**—In the early ages of Christianity each city of the Roman world had its own bishop. The Bishop of Rome was over all, as Rome was the head of all the cities of the empire. Besides, it was believed that St. Peter was the first Bishop of Rome, and that his successors inherited his authority. The services rendered by the Church to Charles the Great now won his steadfast support for the Pope. He bestowed large territories upon the Pope in Italy, and secured the recognition of the Papal power amongst the barbarian races over whom the Franks ruled. Thus was laid the foundation of the tremendous influence of the Papacy in the history of England and the other nations of Western Europe.

5. **The Empire of the West.**—At the very end of the eighth century the Romans declared they would no longer recognise the Empire of the East, where a wicked empress, who had put out the eyes of her own son, was ruling in his stead. On Christmas Day, 800, Pope Leo III. placed the imperial crown upon the head of Charles the Great, amidst the applauding shouts of the people. From that moment the old claims of the empire were revived in the West, and Charlemagne and his successors inherited a vague claim to authority over all Western Europe which had submitted to the Roman sway. Italy, France, Germany,



**THE EMPEROR CHARLEMAGNE.**

and the smaller territories around were considered to form parts of one *Holy Roman Empire*, united by their allegiance to the Pope in things spiritual, and to the emperor in things temporal.

6. **Egbert** (802—836).—The work of Charles the Great was not to be without its influence on England. Egbert, the son of a West Saxon under-king of Kent, of Cerdic's race, had taken refuge at his court. Egbert must have seen with wonder the order which Charles had established throughout his dominions: how the new Frankish kings had been gradually reducing all the semi-independent Teutonic chieftains to submission, putting in their places officers directly connected with the court itself. It was to be Egbert's work to make the order of all England south of the Thames like the order of Charles's realm, though he was not himself to get more than a nominal authority over the rest of the island.

7. **Revival of Wessex**.—A few years after Offa's death Egbert landed in Wessex, and threw off the Mercian supremacy (802). His first few years were spent in bringing all the island south of the Thames, and even Essex, into more thorough subjection. But the old kingdoms which were originally distinct from Wessex would not have been pleased as yet to lose all separate existence; so he set sons of his own, or other members of his house, to rule over these as under-kings, or ealdormen, and thus prepared the way to absorb them at a future time. The annexed kingdoms kept their own Folk-moots and their old organisation, but gradually sank into the position of Shires of Wessex. In the south-west of England the Welsh now only held West Wales, or Cornwall.

8. **Lordship over Mercia and East Anglia**.—It was not, however, till he had defeated Mercia at the battle of Ellandun (825) that Egbert was able to make

his hold on Kent and the other little kingdoms sure. A few years later East Anglia, relying on Egbert's support, rose in revolt against the supremacy of Mercia. Egbert followed up this success, and drove the Mercian king from his throne, only suffering him to return as his vassal.

**9. Submission of Northumbria and Wales.**—Next year Egbert led an army against Northumbria, but was met on the border of that kingdom by the king, who made submission to him as his over-lord. Besides this, Egbert led an army into Wales, with a similar result. He was now over-lord of all the English, both Angles and Saxons, from the Forth to the Channel (826).

**10. Union of England.**—In Egbert the chronicle recognises the eighth Bretwalda; and though his dominion in the north was precarious and incomplete, he was the first true king of all England. All the Saxon and Jutish kingdoms (Essex, Surrey, Sussex, and Kent) were provinces of his kingdom, ruled by princes of his house. In the internal government of the Anglian lands—Northumbria and Mercia—the King of Wessex still had no part. They remained distinct kingdoms, yet admitted Egbert's authority. They recognised him as over-lord, and Egbert called himself "*Rex Anglo-rum*"—the King of the Angles.

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## CHAPTER VII.

### THE DANISH INVASIONS.

**1. Division of Charles the Great's Empire.**—Meanwhile the vast empire of Charles the Great fell to pieces among his three grandsons (843), of whom one took the west part of his domains as King of the West Franks, whence sprang the nation of the French;

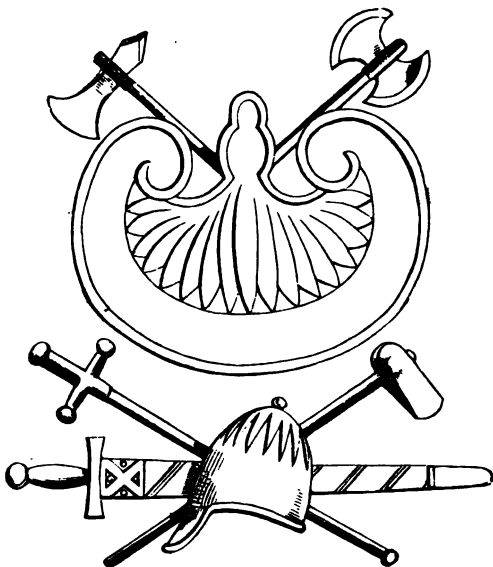


another the east part as King of the East Franks, whence sprang the nation of the Germans; while the middle lands and North Italy formed the domain of the eldest, who succeeded to the title of emperor. But this State never became a nation. Its provinces were for centuries contended for by the rival nations of France and Germany.

**2. Confusion in West Europe.**—The time was one of utter confusion. All the counts and dukes who in Charles the Great's time had been subject to the emperor now strove to be independent. They warred amongst one another, taxed and ground down the people as they pleased, ruled and judged as they thought best, and, in their miserable quarrels with each other, the order and civilisation which he had revived, again died away.

**3. The Scandinavian Migration.**—The dismemberment of the Frankish kingdoms and the union of the English were both hastened by the same event—the incursions of the Scandinavians. These new invaders are called by various names—Danes, Ostmen, or Norsemen, the men from the East or the North. Coming from the promontory of Jutland, and from Scandinavia, they fell upon all the northern coasts of Europe. Theirs was a warfare which spared neither life nor homestead, neither sacred thing nor worldly. Rejoicing in the storm and the battle, they passed in their narrow boats far up the rivers, burning house and monastery, and slaughtering both men and beasts, often for the mere love of destruction. In Ireland—the quiet “island of the saints”—they utterly swept away the civilisation and learning which had flourished there for centuries, and established a kingdom of their own upon the eastern coast. In Russia another body won its way by degrees from the coast of the Baltic to the Dnieper, thence to advance in arms to the gates of

Constantinople. In the far north-west another band divided Iceland among them by lot, and pushed westwards yet, till they reached Greenland and America itself. Others descended on the coasts of Scotland, England, France, and Germany; and they wrested



DANISH WEAPONS.

from the weak King of the West Franks a province which, from their occupation, received its present name of Normandy (911)—the country of the “Normans,” or Northmen.

**4. The Danes in England.**—The storm fell upon England more fiercely than on any other nation. Half the land passed under their rule. The ordeal through which our forefathers passed was terrible. It seemed

as though civilisation and order would be extinguished under the brutal cruelties of these irresistible sea-kings. But in the end England was the gainer. A succession of great West Saxon kings headed a brave resistance against the invaders, and, as the Danes were driven out of each part of the Anglian land, made the newly-won territory part and parcel of the West Saxon realm, and at last changed Wessex into England.

**5. Stages in the Danish Invasions.**—The attack of the Danes on England shows three stages. There was the first period, in which they appeared only as heathen *pirates* and robbers, who descended here and there upon our shores, and made forages through the land to enrich themselves with plunder (beginning in 787). Next they came as *emigrants* to settle in England and abide there (beginning in 866); and finally they came as *conquerors* to annex England to the Danish Empire (1013).

**6. The First Stage—Plunder.**—The Danes had already begun their ravages in England before the end of the eighth century. As yet, however, they met with stout resistance. Ealdormen led their shires against them, and even bishops, thinking it shame to see peaceful homes and monasteries destroyed by the heathen Danes, came down to aid their flocks in the fight.

**7. Egbert.**—In the days of his triumph Egbert had been called to defend his south-west coasts from their raids. He was defeated at Charmouth (833), but, gathering his forces, overcame the invaders and the Cornish, who had joined them, in a great battle at Hengist's Down (835).

**8. Ethelwulf** (839—858).—Egbert's son Ethelwulf held them at bay throughout his reign. Once they sailed up the Thames and plundered London itself; but Ethelwulf was a brave soldier, and eventually drove them from the land.

9. **The Sons of Ethelwulf.**—Ethelwulf had four sons. It would have been most dangerous if, at such an epoch, the royal house should have divided into four branches, or if, upon the death of the elder, an inexperienced youth should have ascended the throne. By Ethelwulf's will it was decided that his sons should succeed to the throne in order of birth. The Witenagemot, whose sanction was necessary to the election of the king, approved Ethelwulf's policy; and his four sons, Ethelbald, Ethelbert, Ethelred I., and the famous Alfred, successively occupied the throne, till the death of Alfred in the first year of the tenth century (858—901). They each carried forward in turn the policy of Egbert, their grandfather, striving to knit into closer union the kingdoms he had annexed, and to fight to the last against the new and terrible enemy who had fallen upon England.

10. **The Second Stage—Settlement.**—It was in the reign of Ethelred I. that the Danes began to make regular settlements in the English parts of Britain. There were still, we must remember, distinct kings in East Anglia and Mercia, and rival kings, if not two kingdoms, in Northumberland. Accordingly the Danes, in 866, finding Northumberland divided, set up a king of their own appointment, to whom they gave the northern kingdom of Bernicia, keeping Deira in their own hands. Thence they passed into East Anglia. They put its king, Edmund, to death, and, dividing the land among themselves, settled down permanently upon it (870).

11. The old royal family of the East Angles perished in the struggle, and when the kings of Wessex, some forty or fifty years later, won back the land, they could join it on to the rest of their kingdom, though its Danish population still kept it somewhat distinct from the south-western part.

12. **Danes in Wessex.**—The next year (871) the Danes invaded Wessex, where a fiercer resistance met them. Ethelred I., the third of the sons of Ethelwulf, was on the throne (866—871), and he attacked the invaders again and again in the country about the White Horse in Berkshire, and strove to drive them out of his kingdom. But in the midst of the war he died. His youngest brother, the great Alfred, succeeded him (871), and was compelled to purchase the retreat of the Danes beyond the Thames with a heavy bribe.

13. **Conquest of Mercia** (874).—Three years later the Danes conquered Mercia, and presently divided the land amongst themselves. The Mercian king, tired of seeing his country's miseries, fled from the country; and so the royal family of Mercia seems to have passed away, as that of East Anglia had already done.

14. **Conquest of Deira** (876).—Next they conquered Deira, and settled down there as in East Anglia and Mercia. This fact deepened the old difference between Deira and Bernicia, where an English king continued reigning, and prepared the way for the ultimate absorption of the Anglian inhabitants of the Lothians by the Scotch instead of by the West Saxon monarchy.

15. **Renewed Attack on Wessex** (876).—Having thus gained possession of the whole Anglian territory except Bernicia, the Danes once more advanced to the conquest of the Saxons, and invaded Wessex. Alfred could for a time make no head against the conquerors, and was forced to abandon his kingdom to their ravages, and take refuge in the west, amongst the impenetrable marshes of the Isle of Athelney.

## CHAPTER VIII.

## THE TRIUMPH OF WESSEX.

1. **The Victory of Alfred** (878).—The worst, however, had now been reached. The force of the Danes had spent itself, and from this moment, under the brave and wise rule of Alfred and his descendants, the tide turned slowly but certainly in favour of Wessex. Gradually Alfred fortified his position and prepared his army. Then he marched against the invaders, and overthrew them utterly in a great battle at Edington, in Wiltshire.

2. **Peace of Wedmore** (878).—The Danish leader, Guthrun, King of East Anglia, was baptised, as a token of his submission, the king himself being his godfather. But Alfred abandoned all hope of driving the Danes from the lands on which they had already settled. A treaty was therefore signed at Wedmore by which Guthrun was to keep East Anglia, Essex, Deira, and part of Mercia, the ancient Roman highway of Watling Street forming the boundary between the West Saxon kingdom and the "Danelagh," as the territory governed by the Danish law was called.

3. **Break-up of Mercia**.—The Mercian kingdom was thus rent to pieces. The Danes' share of it was divided amongst the confederacy of the "Five Boroughs"—Derby, Lincoln, Leicester, Stamford, and Nottingham—each of which became the seat of a Danish jarl, with his host around him, who lived upon the lands they had appropriated and the revenue exacted from the subject population. Alfred did not as yet join his share entirely to Wessex, but, like Kent and the other Saxon kingdoms of the south some fifty years before, it still had its own ealdorman—who was, however,

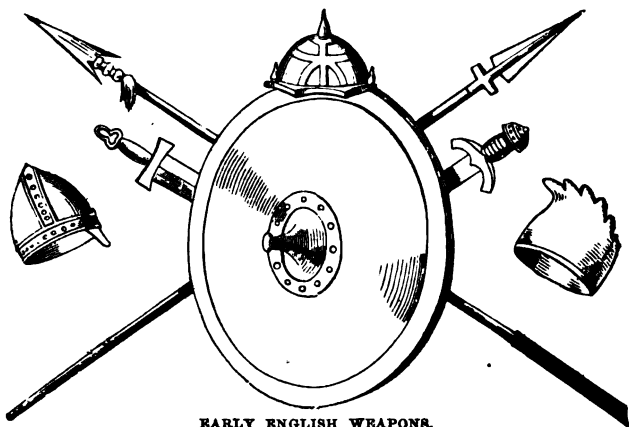
appointed by Alfred—and preserved its separate Wite-nagemot.

4. **Consolidation of Wessex.**—For a hundred years (from the peace of Wedmore to the accession of Ethelred II. in 879) the West Saxon monarchy was at its height. Alfred, his son Edward (901—925), his grandsons Athelstan (925—940) and Edmund (940—946), and his great-grandson Edgar (959—975), were all of them brave and tireless warriors and wise constructive statesmen, determined to have no element of disorder within the island. Gradually they extended their sway over Anglians, Danes, Welsh, and Scotch, until there was no power left in Britain to challenge their supremacy. Meanwhile the constitution rapidly developed, and the primitive institutions of the English people were changed in many important directions. The authority of the king grew greater and extended farther. The Archbishop of Canterbury felt that the ascendancy of the Wessex king was the best security for order, and the best bulwark of Christianity against the heathenism of the Danes; and the whole influence of the Church was used, here as elsewhere in that age, to gather the people under a single rule, and to establish the sanctity and the authority of the “Lord’s Anointed.” The Church helped the king in the improvement and the administration of the law, and he in turn helped the Church to complete its organisation, to enforce its regulations, and to educate the people. From highest to lowest, too, the terrible struggle inclined the people to seek the protection of a strong defender, in preference to the insecurity of their own independence.

5. **Reforms of Alfred** (871—901).—After the peace of Wedmore there was peace for some years. The Danes, though still making occasional incursions, seem to have turned their attention chiefly to France. On

their return Alfred had grown much stronger. He had reorganised the *fyrð*, or national army, and had bound each landholder to military duty. He had built new ships on his own plan, swifter and steadier than the old ones, and with these he now protected his people.

6. Besides curbing the Danes, Alfred found time to foster commerce and build churches and monasteries, and to encourage his people to study, by translating



EARLY ENGLISH WEAPONS.

books from the Latin into English, and by inviting learned scholars from the continent to teach them. Altogether he was the very model of what a good king should be: careful in his own life, religious before God, always thinking and working for his people's welfare, collecting their laws and making such additions to them as seemed necessary, owing to the altered times and the changes wrought by the Danish wars.

7. **Edward the Elder.**—Alfred was succeeded by his son Edward (901—925). His reign was spent in winning back the land, bit by bit, from the Danes. He



was helped greatly by his sister Ethelflaed, the "Lady of the Mercians," who had married the Ealdorman of West Mercia. Building lines of fortresses along the frontier, the king and Ethelflaed went on wresting town after town from the Danes. Derby and Leicester fell before the "Lady of the Mercians," and she was treating for the surrender of York when she died. The king himself carried on the work until, in the year 921, the lost Saxon territory of Essex and the Anglo-Danish peoples of East Anglia and East Mercia had submitted to him. But their submission was now very different from what it had been in Egbert's time. A country which had been won back piecemeal from the enemy, and whose rightful kings had either died out or fled away, could not claim independence of the old sort. From this time it was bound fast to the realm of Wessex. Within three years we find the Welsh of Wales and of Strathclyde, and the King of the Scots, the Danish King of Deira, and the English King of Bernicia, all acknowledging Edward as their over-lord, and he assumed the title of "Angul-Saxonum Rex"—King of the Anglo-Saxons (924).

8. Wessex had thus grown till it included all England from the Channel to the Humber; and, moreover, its king was acknowledged as over-lord by all the other kingdoms of Great Britain.

9. **Athelstan** (925—940).—Athelstan succeeded to the work of his father Edward. There yet remained one Teutonic realm—the great Anglian kingdom of the north—to be incorporated, and then all English-speaking folk in England would be actual part of one kingdom, directly under one king. To destroy the two kingdoms of the north—the dynasty of the Danes in Deira, and that of the English in Bernicia—was the work of the three next sovereigns.

10. **Deira Absorbed** (926).—On the death of the

Danish King of Deira, Athelstan took the land into his own hands. But the King of Scotland grew frightened, and joined with the under-kings of Cumberland and the Welsh to drive him from Deira and overthrow the West-Saxon supremacy. Fresh invaders from Denmark joined their league, but Athelstan marched into Northumberland, and crushed them all at the great battle of Brunanburh (937). He was the first king to claim the title of "Sovereign of all Britain."

11. **Edmund** (940—946).—The land, however, was still far from settled. At Athelstan's death the Danes again rose in arms, and Edmund, his brother and successor, had again to reconquer them. Finally he drove out the Danes entirely from the north, and gave Cumberland—that is, part of Strathclyde—to Malcolm, King of Scots, to hold as his subject. The Scottish king was henceforth to be Edmund's "fellow-worker by sea and land," and proved a powerful check upon the Danes. Edmund was stabbed to death by a robber in the spring of 946.

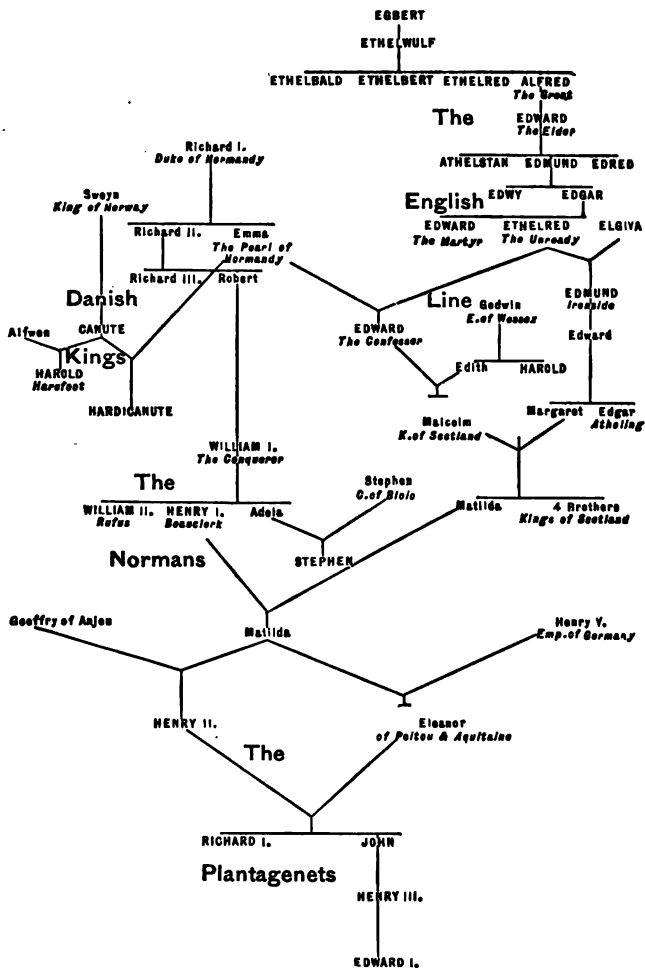
12. **Edred** (946—955).—Edmund was succeeded by his brother Edred, though he had left two sons. Once more the Danes of Northumbria revolted, and chose a new king from Denmark. But again Edred drove the stranger out, and made Oswulf (a member of the old royal house which had so long ruled Bernicia) earl of the whole district from the Forth to the Humber. There is henceforth no rival *king* in English Britain.

13. **Dunstan and Church Reform.**—In these final stages of their triumph Edmund and Edred had been powerfully aided by the great English Churchman, St. Dunstan (b. 925, d. 988), Abbot of Glastonbury, and afterwards Archbishop of Canterbury. Dunstan steadfastly supported their policy of consolidation; and he took also a leading part in the reorganisation of the

Church after the irregularities which had entered during the wars. Christianity had been extinguished in many parts of Britain by the heathen conquerors, and all the monasteries by which the north had been converted had been destroyed. Even in Wessex, by this time, a great change had come over the monks. Men entered the monastic establishments simply to share in the immense possessions which had been showered upon them, and without any intention of keeping their vows. They married, and lived much like the parish priests who had not taken any such oaths. For in those days it was not considered wrong—in England at least—for parish priests—the “secular clergy,” as they were called—to marry, though the rule of the Romish Church condemned it. The evil-doings of the “Regulars,” however, were inexcusable; and a party arose determined to do all in its power to reform the Church, and to re-establish the ruined and the decayed monasteries on a religious footing.

14. **Edwy** (955—959).—Edred was succeeded, however, by a young and foolish son, Edwy, who was incapable of government and careless of reform. He quarrelled with Dunstan, and banished him; but the Mercians and the Northumbrians threw off the rule of Edwy and elected Edgar, his brother, as their king. On Edwy's death, in 959, all England came into his brother's hands.

15. **Edgar** (959—975).—The work of reform now continued in earnest. Dunstan was recalled, and became the leader both in Church and State. Monks were forced to dismiss their wives and keep their vows. Lands which had at earlier times belonged to monasteries were restored to them, and fresh estates conferred by the king's bounty—for Edgar was desirous to have the clergy on the side of his government—and they in return could say nothing but good of him.



THE DESCENT OF THE KINGS OF ENGLAND FROM  
EGBERT TO EDWARD I.

16. The reign of Edgar was so peaceful that we need say very little more about it. All the kings in Britain acknowledged his power. Two acts of his, however, deserve special notice: he granted the Anglian territory of Bernicia as far south as the Cheviot Hills to the King of Scotland, just as his father had already done with Cumberland. Again, he split up what remained of Northumbria into *two* earldoms, leaving to the old earl Oswulf the district north of the Tees, while he gave Deira to a new earl of Danish blood.

17. **Decline of the West Saxon Monarchy (975—1017).**—With the death of Edgar the dynasty of Egbert lost its vigour. His eldest son Edward reigned only a few months, for he was slain by his step-mother, who desired the kingdom for her own son Ethelred (979—1016). Ethelred II. proved alike incapable of governing the kingdom and of defending it from the Danes, and soon came to be known as the Redeless, or Unready. So long as Dunstan lived, however, and Ethelred was content to be led by his advice, the impending ruin was averted. Before the fall let us see what manner of life our early English forefathers had been living.

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## CHAPTER IX.

### SOCIAL AND POLITICAL LIFE OF THE EARLY ENGLISH.

1. **The Old German Village.**—Our forefathers brought with them to Britain the customs of their old German life. They dwelt in villages, or townships, which often were held together by a real or fancied descent from some single family. Thus Torrington is the “ton” of the Torrings, and Birmingham the “ham” of the Birmings (*i.e.*, the descendants of some Tor or Beorm).

**2. Land Held in Common.**—The land around was not owned by individuals, but by the whole village, which met together in a common court to decide how it should be allotted for cultivation, and to settle the affairs of their little community. But though the land was common property at first, each of the villagers had his homestead, and his own portion of the common plough-land and meadow was assigned him yearly. Beyond this, the woods and pastures were free to each member of the little community for fuel and for fodder. This district, held by the whole family, or village, was called a *mark*.

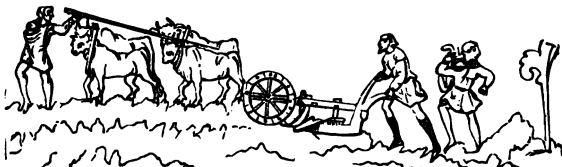
**3. The Hundred and the Tribe.**—The village council, or town-moot, had small legal authority; it could not punish crimes nor settle law disputes. For this purpose the villages were grouped into larger divisions—or “hundreds,” as they were called, because they at first consisted of 100 households, or sent 100 warriors to the army—which held meetings at stated periods, each under its own ealdorman, or magistrate. In these meetings every freeman of full age was entitled to be present. Above these Hundred-moots was the council of the nation—the *Folk-moot*—at which likewise every freeman had a right to appear, and give consent to the proposals of the great men (who alone, as a general rule, would speak) by the clash of spear and shield, or to signify disapproval by a shout.

**4. Four Classes of People.**—There were three classes of people above the absolute slave: the eorl, or noble; the ceorl, or simple freeman; and the læt, or half-slave, who (after property in land had begun to exist) tilled the estate of the community, or of a landlord, paying part of the produce as rent. The head of each tribe was generally a king, boasting his descent from the gods.

**5. The Ealdorman and his Band.**—The greater men—the ealdormen, or the nobles—had the privilege

of maintaining a number of freemen in their "companionship, or *Comitatus*, as the institution is called, who in times of war fought under the guidance of their lord, and in peace lived at his expense; and it was by such warrior bands fighting under some earldorman of renown that the first English settlements had been made in Britain:

6. **Kindred.**—The tie of kindred was very strong; every man in a family was his brother's keeper, bound to defend him, to avenge him, and to enforce his good conduct. If one man had slain or wronged another, he and his family had to pay a fine (varying accord-



SAXON PLOUGHING. (From an Early English MS.—Cotton.)

ing to the social position of the injured person) to his victim's family; or if he had been wronged himself, his family shared in the compensation he received.

7. **Changes caused by the Migration.**—On arriving in Britain, each band of conquerors had taken possession of a district, to which the modern shires often correspond. In many cases the ealdorman who had led his people to victory became a king. The old nobility by birth died out, and a new nobility—formed from the king's personal followers, or *thegns*—took its place.

8. **Property in Land.**—The families of the invaders settled down upon the land in their village communities, or "tuns," to each of which a territory became appropriated, and formed "free" self-governing townships, which again grouped gradually into hundreds.

But land began to pass steadily into private ownership. Many by reclaiming waste land established a right to keep it. Large estates were given to kings and other warriors; and on these, "unfree" townships grew up, subordinate to the lord. The rest of the soil belonged to the public, and was called folk-land. This could not be granted away without the consent of the Witenagemot, yet, as the royal power advanced, it was largely used as a fund out of which the king might provide for his thegns, and bind them more closely to his service.

9. **Witness.**—The freeman had no title-deeds to prove his right to the estate he held; if it were called in question, he appealed to his neighbours to bear witness that his father owned it before him. By the same evidence he claimed his share in the common-land and waste, which at first encircled every little "tun," and which some English townships have preserved to our own century. Ownership in cattle and other property was similarly decided, and all sales had to be made in the presence of witnesses. Gradually, however, as the custom of granting away "folk-land" by charter to individuals arose, the convenience of having a written document to prove ownership induced many to follow the example.

10. **Boroughs.**—On the large estates of the thegns and others there gradually sprang into being *boroughs*, or walled towns. These were dependent on the king, or some other over-lord, whose steward, or "reeve," looked after the freemen who dwelt upon the lord's estate.

11. **Representation.**—As the population increased, it became impossible for every freeman to attend the *Hundred-moot* and the *Folk-moot* of his shire. A custom then grew up for each village to send the lord's steward, the priest, and four chosen men to represent



the rest. When the shires were absorbed in the larger kingdoms there was no *popular* assembly in which the shires themselves were represented. But the bishops and ealdormen and great men of the kingdom were summoned by the king from time to time to the Witenagemot, which held the place of the modern Parliament, and spoke the voice of the whole nation.

**12. Changes caused by the Danish Conquest.**—The settlement of the country by the West Saxon kings after the Danish occupation led the English institutions to take more defined form. Old customs were enforced or changed by law. As Mercia was won back from the Danes, the land was mapped out into shires, which did not correspond with the lost tribal divisions, but seem to have been roughly measured out round the central town, from which the new shire is called. Leicestershire, Staffordshire, and Warwickshire are good examples of this process.

**13. The Hundred-moot.**—The powers and duties of the Hundred-moot were defined. In addition to the representatives just mentioned, the lords of land within the hundred were bound to appear. This assembly tried all cases for the first time, and was responsible for enforcing law and order within the hundred; but an appeal lay to the Shire-moot, and thence to the king and the Witenagemot. Judgments were pronounced nominally by the whole body of the folk who formed the court; but, in point of fact, to avoid having to take the opinion of so large a number of people, a chosen body of twelve declared the judgment of the rest.

**14. The Shire-moot.**—Above this came the Folk-moot of the whole shire, in which likewise all free-men appeared, either in person or by representatives. Here, too, as in the Hundred-moot, twelve senior thegns acted for the rest. This court was held twice a year,

and had the Sheriff, or Shire-reeve, for its chief officer, though the ealdorman and the bishop sat with him, to aid him with their counsels, and to declare the law of the State and of the Church.

**15. The Witenagemot.**—Supreme over all other courts was the Witenagemot, or Meeting of the Wise Men of the nation. This, in the days of West Saxon supremacy, consisted of the ealdormen, the bishops, a few abbots, and a great number of the new nobility—the thegns, or the king's servants. With the consent of this council new laws were issued, grants of folk-land made, appeals received from the lower tribunals, taxes levied, ealdormen and bishops appointed, and, lastly, the kings themselves elected, and even deposed.

**16. The King and his Thanes.**—The king himself became a far greater personage as the Lord of all England than he had been as King of the West Saxons only. A special sacredness began to hedge him round. His own court and the four great highways came under his particular protection, and, when he had taken individuals into his *mund*, or guardianship, offences against them carried a heavier punishment than before. It was held his special duty to enforce peace throughout the realm, and assault or housebreaking was punished as a personal offence against him. But his power was increased still further by the allegiance of his thegns, who were his personal dependants, and owed their position to his favour in obtaining for them estates out of the public land, which they in turn allotted amongst their dependants for cultivation.

**17. Commendation.**—The freedom and equal society of the primitive settlers became transformed into a system of classes, each dependent upon the one above. In the Danish troubles many had been utterly ruined, and had sold themselves for bread; others, who had

still preserved their land, had sought the aid of some great thegn, and, in return for his protection, had surrendered, or "commended," their lands to him, and become his men; so that, from highest to lowest, there was a tendency to make every man dependent upon some one above him, who protected him, and was responsible for him, and whose land he lived on.

**18. Police Arrangements.**—Among the people the old tie of kinship was no longer relied on for the purposes of justice; its place was supplied by new institutions. Every landless man was bound to find a landowner who would be responsible for him; otherwise there could be no security that he would appear in the courts if accused of any crime. Then, as the landowners were responsible for the good behaviour of those who lived on their land, they acquired large powers of jurisdiction, which often over-rode the ancient popular courts. Besides this, every landowner was bound to give information against any criminals in his neighbourhood, and to join the "hue and cry" in pursuit of any fugitive from justice within his hundred.

**19. The National Army.**—Every landholder was not only a policeman, but a soldier. He was bound to muster for the army, or *fyrð*, as it was called; and if he failed to appear he was liable to a fine, the thanes being specially bound to the king's service.

**20. Old English Trials.**—In the law courts the means of ascertaining a man's guilt or innocence were strange, according to modern ideas. After the accused had taken an oath of the justice of his cause, his lord, if he had one, gave evidence to his previous good character. The accused then produced a number of friends—compurgators, as they were called—to swear that they believed him innocent. The accuser, too, might bring forward his compurgators. In other cases the *ordeal* was resorted to. According to the

seriousness of the charge, the accused now underwent one or other of several trials: he ate a morsel of consecrated bread, or plunged his hand into boiling water to take out a heavy weight, or carried a red-hot iron for a fixed number of paces; and if the bread did not choke him, or the burns were healed after three days, he was pronounced innocent. No one, however, was thus sent to the ordeal until his case had been investigated in the Folk-moot by a jury of twelve, and they had been fairly satisfied of his guilt.

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## CHAPTER X.

### LANGUAGE, LITERATURE, AND MANNERS.

1. **Language.**—The triumph of Wessex had also its results upon our language and our literature. The various dialects of the English kingdoms, traces of which still survive in local talk, yielded to the West Saxon, which became the literary tongue of the island.

2. **Earliest English Poetry.**—Our earliest remains of English poetry were composed before any English tribes had set foot in Britain. The first-comers must have brought with them from the old home our oldest verse, "Beowulf" and the "Traveller's Song." The first of these poems tells how Beowulf, after freeing a great chief and his nation from the ravages of the monster Grendel, at last perished, wounded to death by a dragon; and how his sorrowing people, in honour of their dead lord, lighted a pinewood fire upon the sea-side hill, and reared there a vast mound, "seen far by sailors." All old English poetry is written in what is called alliterative verse—*i.e.*, in every couplet at least three accented syllables must begin with the same letter.

So we read, wherever the dragon's steps have been, there are—

*"Tracks of the troubler, | Telling plainly  
Her way through the waste | As they went forward."*

**3. Cædmon and Northumberland.**—The first home of English literature in Britain was Northumberland. There, in the seventh century, flourished the first truly English poet, Cædmon. Near the monastery of Whitby he sang, though only a herdsman by birth, of the Creation and the Fall, of the Coming and the Death of Christ. Soon after, English history took its rise at Jarrow. There Bede not only wrote a Latin history of the conversion of his fathers to Christianity, but also translated the Gospels into his own tongue, dying as he dictated the last verse of St. John. Alcuin, the greatest scholar of the court of Charles the Great, and his master in all branches of study, came from York; and he did not stand alone.

**4. The Wessex Revival.**—The invasion of the Danes ruined every monastery in the north, and extinguished utterly the learning which they had fostered. After Alfred's victory there was a great revival of knowledge; but its centre was in the south of the island, in Wessex, whose dialect now became the chief channel of literature. Alfred began the movement. Besides translating many books from the Latin for his own people, he invited the greatest scholars of the continent to aid him. It was probably in his reign that the Old English Chronicle, which is the chief source of our history, was first put together. It continued year after year till 1154, every now and then breaking out into verse to celebrate some English victory or to bemoan a great king's death. Alfred seems to have compiled, about 891, a rough summary of earlier English history, and to have had copies of this placed in the chief monasteries of the kingdom, with orders to carry

the work on by writing down each year such things as seemed most memorable in the kingdom or the neighbourhood. This Chronicle was written in English—a great contrast to all histories of foreign lands at the same time, which were always drawn up in Latin.

5. Under the supremacy of Wessex, English literature continued to flourish. Latin and English were daily written more and more. As Asser and Plegmund had assisted Alfred to restore learning, so did Dunstan and his friends aid Edgar. At last, in the closing years of the tenth century, we have the greatest of the old English prose writers, Ælfric. Among his works are Latin grammars (for English boys), Latin vocabularies, and English sermons.

6. This Early English literature, written both in our native dialect and in the Latin tongue, which was common to all Western Europe, abounded in song, in history, and in sermon. It was mainly the work of the gleeman and the monk. It flourished only for a while. It was destined for some centuries to be abandoned for its French or Latin rivals, till, in the fourteenth century, it bursts out into a nobler life than ever in the hands of Geoffrey Chaucer and John Wyclif.

7. **An Early English Household.**—The dwelling of a Saxon thane would be built of wood, and would consist of only one large apartment. This was the hall in which the feast was held. The fire was kindled in the centre of the room—for as yet there were no chimneys, but the smoke curled up through a hole in the middle of the ceiling, blackening the great rafters that spanned the roof, and filling the chamber. As meal-time drew on, the boards were brought forward from the walls against which they rested, and set on wooden legs, to be taken down again when the feast was over. But the chief delights of the banquet lay in the gleeman's song, which circled round when the viands were

removed, and the horn of mead or sweetened ale was handed on from guest to guest to be emptied at a single draught, for it had no foot to stand upon. There were doors at either end of the hall, and as they opened or shut, the gust of wind fluttered among the darkened tapestry with which the walls were hung. Later on, when gleeman and guest alike were weary and the fire was dying out, the same chamber served for a sleeping



SAXON CAROUSE. (*From the Harleian MS.*)

room, though to the larger houses at least there were attached a few bowers or women's chambers.

**8. The Lady's Bower.**—In these bowers more luxuries were to be found. There the candle flickered through the long winter evenings to light the women at their tapestry. There, too, were beds consisting of a sack of straw laid upon a bench or board. Over the sleeper was stretched a rough sheet and coverlet, and were she a rich lady or a queen, scarlet curtains might add some touch of luxury to her chamber.

**9. Sports.**—The chief pleasures of the higher classes were hunting and hawking. Wolves and wild animals

abounded in the deep forests. The chase had not degenerated into a mere idle pastime, but was regularly pursued to provide food. The hunter's dogs would drive the game into nets, there to be despatched with arrow or with spear, or worry the wild boar with their teeth till their master came up to give the fatal blow.

10. **Weapons.**—In battle the Englishman always fought on foot. If a rich man, he might ride to the field of battle; but, when once there, he would always dismount and fight with his followers, and armed like them. Round the ealdorman, or great man, gathered his own retainers; but the main force of an English army lay in the freemen of the shire, the *fyrð*, gathered in townships under their reeve. The general weapon was the sword, till the impending conquest of England by the Danes brought in the axe to supplant it. The bow and arrow—which were in a few centuries to win so many victories for England abroad—were not used for battle till after the conquest of England by the Normans.

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## CHAPTER XI.

### THE DANISH CONQUEST.

1. **Third Stage of Danish Invasions—Conquest.**—Ethelred II., under the guidance of his mother, who had murdered Edward to set her own son upon the throne, grew up to be an arrogant and unprincipled king. He offended the great territorial ealdormen by his despotic projects, and so lost all hold upon their shires. After the death of the great Archbishop Dunstan (988), the Danes, who had already begun to ravage the land, came in greater numbers than ever. For the king's new counsellors persuaded him to buy them



off instead of fighting them, and the Danes liked this method of getting money so much better than the old that they came back year after year for more.

2. **Folly of Ethelred.**—And why were the Danes so successful? It was not that the English were cowards and unable to fight, but because the king was so weak and had such foolish advisers. Where good fighting was done it was only in single districts, and not by the force of the whole kingdom. "Shire would not help shire," as the chronicle says. And, as if he had not enough to do with the Danes, Ethelred sent an army to ravage Normandy also, though he soon made peace with that country, and married the duke's daughter, hoping to secure the help of the Northmen who had settled there against their wild kinsfolk.

3. **Massacre of St. Brice** (1002).—At last, on the advice of his counsellor Eadric, Ethelred determined to strike a blow that the Danes should feel indeed. On St. Brice's Eve he treacherously murdered every Dane in England (1002). But so dastardly an act only enraged the Danish king; and from this time year after year saw his warriors pressing further into the heart of the country. The old evils were at work again: treachery, disunion, famine—this last was so severe that for one year the Danes never came, as though they knew there would be no plunder to reward them.

4. **Sweyn of Denmark.**—At last, in 1013, the Danish king, Sweyn, came in person, and this time not to ravage but to conquer the land. First of all Deira submitted to him, a country already partly peopled by Danes; then Lincolnshire and the five Danish boroughs fell into his hands. The coward Ethelred fled to Normandy, and Sweyn became King of England.

5. Sweyn's career was cut short in 1014 by his sudden death. Ethelred came back with his son, Edmund

Ironside, who fought nobly against the Danes. But Sweyn's son Canute took up the struggle. Ethelred died, and Edmund was compelled to share the kingdom with Canute. Then, almost immediately, Edmund himself died, and Canute became king of the whole land.

**6. Canute (1017—1035) and the Earldoms.**—

Almost from the very first, Canute seems to have forgotten that he was not of English blood. Though before the end of his reign he had added three other crowns—Denmark, Norway, and Sweden—to that of England, yet it was as King of England that he ruled them all, and at Winchester that he lived. He made himself one with the nation that he had conquered, and governed as the father of his new people. In 1018 he sent home most of his foreign ships, and soon began to give the great offices of the state to Englishmen and not to Danes. He divided England into four provinces, Northumberland, East Anglia, Mercia, and Wessex, over each of which he set an earl. As the years passed on he became more and more an Englishman. In 1027 he went on a pilgrimage to Rome, whence he wrote home a famous letter to "his children," pledging himself to give them justice, and urging them "to worship and love the one true God."

**7. The House-georls.**—He gathered round his person a number of armed men from various nations—forming, for the first time in England, a small standing army. These were governed by laws of their own, and were called his "House-georls."

**8. North Bernicia (Lothian) granted to the Scotch King.**—From the Tweed to the English Channel was directly under his rule, but he claimed authority over the kings beyond. The Scotch king was allowed to rule over the English folk in Northumbria north of the Tweed, doing homage to the King of England,

just as since Edmund's time he had held Cumberland, the old kingdom of Strathclyde (from the mouth of the Clyde to the Lune), on similar terms.

9. **Edward the Confessor** (1042—1066).—All this time Edward, a son of Ethelred, had been living in Normandy, at his uncle's court, and after the death of Canute and his two evil sons, Harold and Harthacnut, he came back to reign. He had lived abroad so long that he loved foreign ways more than English, and was always bringing strangers over from Normandy, to hold the best places in his court and in the Church. At last one Norman was made Archbishop of Canterbury, and another committed such outrages in Dover that the townsfolk slew twenty of his followers.

10. **Godwin**.—The greatest man in England was Godwin. He had been made Earl of Wessex by Canute, and had been his deputy in the government. It was he who had brought back Edward. He had married his daughter to the king, and since then had ruled the kingdom, making his son Harold earl over East Anglia. The great Earl Godwin was bidden to punish Dover for its offence, as it lay within his earldom. But he refused to slay his own countrymen without a trial; and the king, fearing his anger, sent for the Danish Earl of Northumbria, and Leofric of Mercia, to balance the force which Godwin had called together. But instead of fighting, matters were brought before the Witenagemot, which, feeling that Godwin and his sons were growing too powerful, seized the opportunity of the king's displeasure to drive them into exile. They returned, however, next year (1052), and drove the hated strangers out of the land.

11. **Harold**.—Godwin died in the following year. His son Harold became earl over Wessex, and succeeded to all his father's power, which he wielded with energy and wisdom.

12. In 1066 Edward the Confessor died, just after completing the noble abbey-church he was building at Westminster, and, as there was no fitting heir of the West Saxon house, the "wise men" chose Earl Godwin's son Harold to be king. But there were other competitors for the throne. Harold's elder brother Tostig landed on the Humber coast, accompanied by the great Danish king, Harold Hardrada. Scarcely had our English Harold driven back these invaders, before he heard that another enemy, William of Normandy, had landed in Sussex, at the head of a formidable army, to assert his claim to the crown.

13. Rejecting the advice of his brothers, that he should stay behind to gather a second army, and leave them to fight the first battle, Harold went forth in person to meet the invader, and perished in the battle of Hastings (1066).

14. **Edgar Etheling.**—Edwin and Morkere, the two great earls of Mercia and Northumbria, remained the only defenders of the land. They, with the Witan, elected Edgar Etheling, the grandson of Edmund Ironside, king. But William marched against them. Edgar took refuge in Scotland, the two earls soon laid down their arms, and William was master of the country.

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## CHAPTER XII.

### THE NORMAN CONQUEST.

1. **Normans in France.**—More than a century and a half had passed away since Charles the Simple had granted permission to Rollo and his Norman followers to settle west of the Seine. Since that time, in the course of three generations, the Normans had become Christians, forgotten their own tongue, and adopted

the language and manners of the people amongst whom they were settled. The new province was soon the most orderly and most prosperous part of France; and it was by the help of the Norman duke that in 987, after the direct line of Charles the Great had failed, Hugh Capet, the Count of Paris, was crowned King of the French. This Hugh was the founder of the line which reigned in France till the great revolution in 1789. With his accession the modern kingdom of France may be said to begin.

**2. The Normans in Europe.**—The Normans rapidly became the leading power in Europe. They were bold warriors, shrewd statesmen, and strong organising rulers, who sternly enforced order and systematic government wherever they came. It was not in England alone that the Normans were now winning for themselves new kingdoms. One Norman knight sailed to Spain, to wrest a kingdom there, if possible, from the Moors; but in this he failed. Others landed in South Italy, and founded a kingdom which included also Sicily. Before long their restless energy found vent in the Crusades. They established the kingdom of Jerusalem, and became lords for a while of the European territory of the Eastern empire, and of its capital Constantinople.

**3. The Hildebrandine Papacy.**—The Normans were in close alliance with the Popes, whose position had now ceased to be purely spiritual and ecclesiastical; for they had become the powerful sovereigns of an Italian realm of their own, of which Rome was the capital. There had been a great revival in the Church throughout the West. Stricter morality and closer observance of the Church's regulations were demanded. Hildebrand, who became Pope Gregory VII. (1071), was the chief champion of this movement. He conceived that the spiritual power should be entirely independent

of the Temporal or civil authority, so that it might be free to enforce the discipline of the Church against the wickedness of the World. It was his object to organise the priesthood in strict subordination to the Papacy throughout every kingdom in Christendom, and to cut the priests off from marriage and every other worldly tie or obligation.

**4. The Normans and the Papacy.**—The Normans were at the outset in close alliance with the Papacy. The day was coming when they found that these ideas of Hildebrand conflicted with sound government; but at present, with all the zeal of new converts, they were eager to advance the Church. They endowed it with the spoils of their conquests, and built noble abbeys and cathedrals for their new worship. They employed the most able Churchmen in their government. They fought for the Papacy in the Italian wars, and in return the Popes blessed all their enterprises and sanctioned all their acquisitions.

**5. Grounds of William's Invasion.**—It was this nation which was now to direct the course of England. Duke William was not without claims on the country. He professed to be heir to his cousin, Edward the Confessor, who had promised him the throne. Harold too had sworn, so he said, some years before, to help him to the crown; and besides this, the English archbishop did not acknowledge the Pope reigning at Rome, but another appointed by the Western emperor; and William received the sanction of the Church to bring back England into allegiance to Rome.

**6. William's Coronation.**—William, therefore, now ascended the throne as the legal successor of Edward; and at the first the people seemed ready to accept him, as they had accepted Canute. He was duly crowned in Edward's new abbey of Westminster, though Stigand, Archbishop of Canterbury, whose office it

was, being opposed to the Pope of Rome, was not permitted to perform the ceremony. In old English form the people gathered near the abbey were asked if they would receive him for their monarch, and with their shouts of "Yes!" he stepped into the office of the dead Harold.

**7. William's Conduct to the English.**—But at once he began to build a castle in London—the Tower—his regular process in each great town as he won it, to keep the country in order. And then followed the chastisement of his enemies. William looked upon himself as the rightful king of the land. All England, from his point of view, had shared in Harold's sin by accepting his rule; and to those who had actually fought against their lord at Hastings he was very severe; their property was forfeited at once, and went to reward his faithful Norman followers. So, too, fared all those who refused to acknowledge him after his coronation. But even the rest were only permitted to retain their lands on payment of a fine.

**8. Revolts.**—Next year William went back to Normandy, leaving his half-brother, Odo, Bishop of Bayeux, and his great friend, Fitz-Osborne, to rule in his absence. But the English had begun to discover that the rule of the Normans was very different from the mild sway of Canute and of Edward. Thousands were ruined or impoverished. Norman adventurers were settling in English homes. Castles were rising everywhere, and the land was under military rule. William had scarcely left England, when the tyranny of the regents drove the English to revolt. The Kentish men sent over seas to Eustace of Boulogne for aid. In Hereford, Eadric the Wild leagued with the Welsh kings. In the south-west, where the influence of Harold's family was greatest, Exeter claimed to rule herself, and only pay a small

tax to the English king. More dangerous than all, banished Englishmen were in every part of Europe, seeking aid from foreign princes against their Norman oppressor, and in especial they turned their eyes to the Danish kings of East Ireland and Denmark.

**9. Conquest of the West.**—On the news of the rebellion, William returned, and, as King of England, called out the English *fyrð*, that the shires he already ruled might help his own knights. Exeter and the west felt his vengeance first; the family of Harold was driven abroad, and nearly all Cornwall passed into the hands of the king's half-brother, Robert of Mortain (1068).

**10. First Conquest of the North.**—But the heart of the rebellion was in the north, where Malcolm of Scotland encouraged the revolt. Edwin and Morkere cast off their allegiance, but lost heart, and submitted to the king. Slowly, but surely, William marched northward, building castles as he went along. At York he received Malcolm's homage as over-lord of Great Britain; and then turned south, marching eastward of his former course, through Lincoln, Stamford, Huntingdon, and Cambridge, still building castles.

**11. Second Conquest of the North (1069).**—Such was William's first conquest of the north. But a more desperate effort was to be made next year. The Danish king had at last sent aid, and his ships were in the Humber. The sons of Harold landed in Devonshire, from Ireland, to plunder. Eadric the Wild rose in arms once more in Shropshire and Stafford; and, more than this, Eadgar, the English heir, came from Scotland to join the Danes, who with their fleet passed up the Ouse, and, helped by the English, gave York to the flames. But the different centres of revolt had no combination. William bought off the Danes, and laid waste the whole country from Tees to Humber.



Within this district not a house nor barn was left standing ; even in the next generation the ground was bare. The same work was carried on next year from Tees to Tyne.

12. **Final Subjugation.**—The conquest was now final, save that in the swamps of Ely a few desperate Saxons still held out under Hereward, only to fall next year (1071).

13. **The Land Divided amongst the Normans.**—After these rebellions William dealt with England no longer as its national king, but as its conqueror. He took possession of the soil. Vast portions he kept in his own hands ; the rest he granted chiefly to his Norman followers on the *Feudal Tenure*—that is, they received estates from him on condition of paying him certain services, and especially of bringing to his wars a stated force of warriors. The king's *tenants-in-chief*, as they were called, in turn granted portions of the estates to vassals of their own upon like conditions ; so that almost the whole land passed into the hands of Norman owners, though on many estates the former English owners lived on under Norman lords.

14. **Domesday Book** (1086).—In 1085 William sent commissioners throughout the land to survey the vast possessions that had thus passed into his hands, and to furnish him with a minute report of the condition of every estate in the country, of its boundaries, and of the rent and services which it had to pay. They returned in the following year with their report, which is known as Domesday Book, and which can still be seen in the British Museum. -

15. **The English Church.**—Meanwhile William had not forgotten his commission from the Pope. Before the Norman Conquest our island had had comparatively little to do with the Popes. The Archbishop of Canterbury had managed Church affairs here

by himself, and only very rarely had an appeal been made to Rome. Marriage was still the habit of the secular clergy. Above all, England was to be purified from the stain of heresy, which she had incurred in acknowledging a false Pope. Accordingly, in 1070, two legates, or ambassadors, of the Pope came over and removed Stigand, the English archbishop. In his stead William appointed the learned Lombard, Lanfranc, who filled the English bishoprics and abbeys with foreign prelates, upheld the Norman rule, and built splendid churches. However, they reformed the manners of the monks, and encouraged learning amongst their clergy.

**16. The King's Supremacy.**—But though in these ways William's conduct was agreeable to the Pope, yet he distinctly refused to take an oath of fealty to that pontiff; he was English king, he said, in his own right, and by his people's election, and owned no over-lord in Pope or emperor. Moreover, if there were rival Popes, as there had been so often of late, he alone would decide which of them the English should acknowledge. No council of bishops should be called save with his permission, and their decrees should require his sanction. And, lastly, none of his tenants-in-chief or officers should be excommunicated without his consent.

**17. Separation of Ecclesiastical Courts.**—By these means he bridled the power of both Pope and archbishop in England; but he was so far influenced by the Papal theory of the distinction between the State and the Church that, in opposition to the English custom, he allowed the bishops to hold their own courts—apart from those of the shire and hundred—to try all causes in which the ecclesiastical questions were concerned. The ill effects of this concession will be seen in Henry II.'s reign.

**18. Revolt of the Earls.**—The conquest of England was completed, but William and his successors had now to strive with the turbulence of the great nobles—often their own kinsmen—who aimed at vaster estates and more complete independence of the Crown. In 1074 the Earls of Hereford and Norfolk, discontented with the princely estates they already held, and angered at William's refusing the Earl of Norfolk permission to marry Hereford's sister, revolted. For being concerned in this offence, Waltheof, a great English noble who had been received into favour by the king, made Earl of Northampton, and married to the king's niece, suffered death; while Hereford, though son of William's most trusted friend, was cast into prison.

**19. Robert's Rebellion.**—William's later years were troubled by the rebellious conduct of his eldest son Robert, who wished his father to give up some part of his dominions to him. He was supported by his mother Matilda, and secretly backed by the King of France, who was growing very jealous of the vast power now wielded by his vassal, the Duke of Normandy.

**20. Conquests in France.**—For William was now extending his dominions also in France, and, in 1073, led an army, consisting partly of Englishmen, to annex the province of Maine. In this he was successful, and he was engaged in further aggression upon the French king when he died at Rouen (1087). The Conquest brought Britain back into connection with the Continent, from which, since the Romans left, it had been well-nigh severed. It brought us into enmity with France. From the Norman dukes we inherited a feud with their French suzerains—a feud which, continuing even after we had lost Normandy, handed down to either nation a spirit of hatred that has smouldered on almost to our own days.

## CHAPTER XIII.

## THE KING AND THE BARONS.

1. **William Rufus** (1087—1100).—William I. left three sons behind him. On his deathbed he settled that Robert should succeed to Normandy, which was his by birthright. England, which he had won by the sword, he would give, so far as in him lay, to William, his second son; to the youngest son, Henry, he left a sum of money. William—called Rufus, or the Red—hastened to England, was at once crowned king by Lanfranc, and took the old oath to defend the Church, and be just and merciful, and to follow the archbishop's counsel in all things. After his accession all men in England submitted and swore allegiance to him.

2. **Revolt of Barons.**—England was thus once more separated from Normandy; but the great foreign lords in England banded themselves together under the king's uncle, Odo, Bishop of Bayeux, to re-unite England to the Norman dukedom under Robert. Of all the great lords of the Conquest only two—the Earls of Chester and Warren—remained faithful. But the English Church, under Lanfranc and the bishops, and the English people rallied round William, and drove the leaders of the rebellion out of the land.

3. **Oppression of all Classes.**—But William soon forgot his promises to Lanfranc and his obligation to the English. For one moment William was frightened by the approach of death into taking an oath of reform. But on his return he jeered at his vow. "Who is there," he asked, mockingly, "who can fulfil all he has promised?" His court became a scene of dissipation: womanish apparel, foreign vices, shocked the feelings of all his people save his courtiers

alone. There was every form of senseless extravagance, and night was turned into day. No means were too base, none were too violent, if he might only gain money. He called together the English *fyrð* to cross over to Normandy, and when it reached Portsmouth, took from them the subsistence-money their comrades had given them at home, and dismissed them without crossing the sea. Bishoprics and abbeys were left vacant, and their revenues filled the king's coffers. Every claim that he had on any part of his subjects, clergy or lay, was pressed to the extreme. No prelate might be admitted to the estates of his office till he paid an immense fee. The chief minister of his exactions was Ranulf Flambard, Bishop of Durham.

4. **Anselm.**—On Lanfranc's death the see of Canterbury lay vacant for four years (1089—1093). Then, fearing that he was dying, the king forced Anselm, a gentle pious scholar from Italy, to accept it, much against the latter's will; but, on recovering, he refused to give the new archbishop his estates until he had paid the heavy "fine" which William wished to demand from his bishops on succession to their sees, as from his vassals on succession to their fiefs. Anselm, however, held that the king had no claim nor control over the property of the Church. At last, in 1097, after nearly four years' wrangling, Anselm left the kingdom and departed to Rome.

5. **Robert.**—Badly as William treated the archbishop, he treated his brother Robert worse. Robert was a brave warrior but a careless prince. Every opportunity that Robert's loose government gave was greedily seized. By the Treaty of Caen in 1091 the east frontier of Normandy passed into William's hands, and then the two brothers joined forces to rob Henry of the little territory he possessed, after having agreed that the survivor should inherit the other's

dominions in case he died without lawful children. Later Robert agreed to mortgage Normandy to William while he was absent in the first Crusade.

6. In 1099 the king perished by an arrow whilst hunting in the New Forest, and none regretted him.

7. **Henry I.** (1100—1135).—Henry at once hastened to England, where he was elected and crowned king. At the same time he put forth a charter promising good government and peace. The Church, the barons, and the nation were all to have their rights respected; the abuses of William II. were to be reformed, and his own barons were to grant to their vassals the privileges which the king gave to them. To make his position yet more secure, Henry married Edgar Atheling's niece, and recalled Anselm from banishment, both agreeing to let matters at dispute between king and archbishop sleep till peace was restored to the land and the government strengthened.

8. **Wars with Robert.**—But Robert returned from the Crusade, and invaded England (1101). He was supported by the barons, who were anxious to re-unite England to Normandy, and who preferred his lax rule to that of Henry. For Henry, like his father, would have but one lord in the land. Henry threw himself on the English, as William had done before, and Anselm prevailed on the two brothers to come to terms rather than risk a battle when both sides feared that victory would only mean licence to the barons on the conquering side. Five years later Henry invaded Normandy, and took Robert prisoner at the battle of Tenchebrai (1106), after which he kept him prisoner till his death. Thus Normandy was in turn annexed to England.

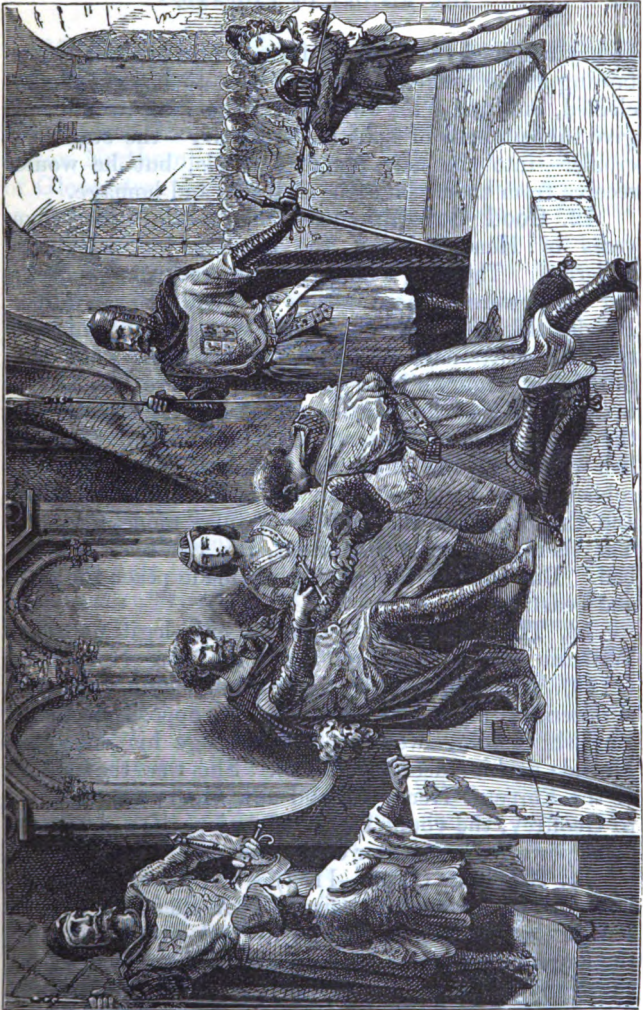
9. **The Norman Wars.**—The French king, the neighbouring princes, and the Norman baronage resisted the union to the utmost of their power, and again and again, for twenty years, incited William, the

son of Robert, to recover his inheritance (1109—1128). Henry was often hard-pressed, but he kept his hold, and Normandy remained joined to England till the reign of John.

**10. Reduction of Norman Barons.**—Relying upon the English, Henry steadily reduced the power of the great baronial houses. All the adherents of Robert lost their English estates, till the great barons were thoroughly broken in England, and the lands which they held here passed into the king's hands, or were given out to new families dependent on him. The same work went on in Normandy; but here Henry contented himself with seizing the castles only; the lands he left in the barons' hands.

**11. Church and State.**—The theory which Hildebrand had urged of the entire separation of the Church and the World had at length embroiled every kingdom of the West, and now led to a quarrel between Anselm and the king. The Church held vast lands which owed feudal service to the sovereign. The bishops and abbots who enjoyed such lands were reckoned, therefore, amongst the great barons of the realm, and enjoyed all the privileges of that position; and consequently the kings claimed to appoint them, or at least to give them the *investiture*, or possession, of their temporal estates, and to take from them an oath of homage as from other barons. On the other hand, the Popes ordained that such prelates should be appointed by *canonical election*—that is, by the clergy—and that they should in no way admit the authority of the king over them or their estates. There were also other causes of controversy. Were councils to be held whenever the archbishop willed, without the king's consent? Were Papal legates to have authority in England? For a while the struggle was so fierce that Anselm had to leave the country, but in the end a compromise was agreed to, by which

CEREMONY OF FEUDAL HOMAGE.





Henry resigned the outward form, while practically retaining all he wished. Prelates were to be canonically elected, but under his own eye. The king would not give the emblems of spiritual authority—the staff and crozier—into the new prelates' hands, but he would receive from them the oaths of fealty and homage.

**12. Good Government.**—During the thirty-five years of Henry's reign the country was regularly governed. The king's officers went everywhere, checking the powers of those barons who had not yet fallen. Besides this, a new baronage was set up on the ruins of the old: a baronage consisting of the most tried and faithful of Henry's legal officers. If there was heavy taxation, it was the taxation of the king alone, and not the extortion of a thousand petty lords. The old English courts of the shire and hundred were revived; robbers were hung as many as forty-four at a time, and the hands of the coiners of false money cut off. Yet there was great discontent, for the seasons were bad. But at least the great king made peace for man and beast.

**13. The Succession.**—Henry's only legitimate son William was drowned on the way from Normandy (1120). The king married again; but, having no more children, he made the great men, in opposition to all English custom, swear to acknowledge his daughter Matilda as his successor (1126). She was the widow of the Emperor Henry V., and now Henry married her to Geoffrey, the young Count of Anjou, the nearest and most powerful neighbour of Normandy.

**14. Stephen (1135—1154).**—On Henry's death, however, the crown was seized by Stephen, the grandson of the Conqueror, though he had sworn fealty to the empress. Stephen was upheld by London and by the Norman barons, who hated the rule of their hereditary enemies, the Counts of Anjou.

**15. Civil War.**—What the barons really wanted was independence. They revolted against the king's authority in every direction. David, King of Scotland, seized the opportunity to invade England and annex Northumberland; and at last, in 1138, Robert of Gloucester, the late king's illegitimate son, declared in favour of his sister. And now a state of frightful confusion ensued. From either side men bought titles and possessed themselves of part of the regal revenue. Generally speaking, the west was for the empress, the east and London for Stephen. Each baron now built himself a castle, and there lived by pillage, oppressing and torturing and hanging the peaceful inhabitants of the realm. The solemn court-days of the great William were no longer held. Robbers abounded, and men said openly that Christ and his saints slept.

**16. The Bishops.**—In this confusion the Church was the one element of order. The chief ministers and legal officials of Henry I. had been clergy, since they alone had sufficient education to carry on the routine of government. Their first object was to end the war and restore the law and order which Henry had enforced. Stephen's brother Henry was Bishop of Winchester, legate of the Pope, and the most influential Churchman in England. It was he who at the outset secured to Stephen the support of the Church.

**17. Overthrow of Stephen.**—When, however, it appeared that Stephen could not enforce order, the Bishops of Salisbury, Lincoln, and Ely, who were at the head of the Exchequer, began to negotiate with Matilda. Stephen seized their castles, and from that time the Church, and even Henry, deserted the cause of Stephen. Matilda landed (1139), Stephen was taken prisoner at the battle of Lincoln (1141), and Matilda was crowned queen. But she ruled so tyrannously that

Henry of Winchester soon returned to his brother's side, and then the war continued till, in 1147 (on Gloucester's death), Matilda withdrew to Normandy.

18. **Treaty of Winchester.**—Matilda's son Henry invaded England in 1153; but the bishops arranged that, to prevent bloodshed, Stephen should keep the crown for his life, but recognise the young prince as his heir.

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## CHAPTER XIV.

### EFFECTS OF THE NORMAN CONQUEST.

1. **Continuance of English Institutions.**—William's theory was that he was King of England by inheritance, and as King of England he professed to preserve all the old institutions of the land. The Witenagemot, the shire and the hundred courts, the taxes and the government, were all to continue as of old; the towns and the shires were still to pay their old services to lord and king; justice was still to be dealt out in the old ways—by ordeal and compurgation.

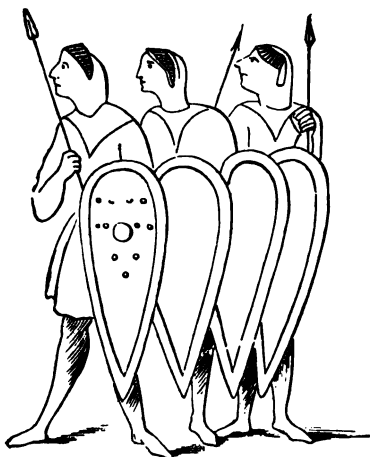
2. **Norman Influence.**—But the customs and the laws under which the Normans had lived differed in many ways from the English. The relations between the Normans and the Crown continued naturally to be governed by Norman rather than by English law, and their native customs took new root in England. Thus, part insensibly and part by the deliberate legislation of the Normans, our old institutions were in fact widely changed.

3. **Supremacy of the King.**—In the last period of English history it seemed not unlikely that the land would be split up into a number of separate earldoms, each to a large extent independent in reality,

though still acknowledging the king's supremacy in name. The Norman Conquest saved us from this peril. The supreme power of a strong king was felt everywhere. All men, of whatever lord they held their lands, had in William to acknowledge an over-lord who was their master, and to whom they were forced, great and little, to take an oath of fealty; while, at the same time, his authority restrained his immediate vassals from oppressing those amongst whom they divided their estates. William had seen what the feudal system meant in France, and how there each petty lord was independent of his king. Abroad, each petty baron would follow the banner of his immediate over-lord, not only against other barons, but even against the king himself. Besides this, in the great French baronies each lord judged and taxed, and made war at his own pleasure. But William was determined that there should be no such disorder here. Accordingly he avoided putting whole shires into the hands of single earls, as Edward the Confessor had sometimes done; and if he ever did so, as in the cases of Chester, Kent, and Durham, it was in the border districts, where a strong power was needed to guard against foreign invasion. The splendid estates that William carved out of English soil for his followers were carefully sundered one from the other, and scattered over many counties. With his territories so divided, no great lord could raise all his vassals suddenly, and in a moment overpower his king. The right of private war was never permitted in England, and every man in the kingdom had to swear allegiance to the king himself.

**4. Feudal System.**—The institutions of the Normans, as of all the other peoples which had sprung up out of the Frankish empire, were based upon the *Feudal System*. The feudal system may be defined as an arrangement of society in which every member owes

definite services to, and has definite claims upon, his superiors and his inferiors. These and all other social duties and privileges and powers are based upon the possession of land. The supreme landowner is the king. He has carved out his realm into vast estates among the great dukes and counts: these are the tenants-in-chief. They in their turn distribute their



NORMAN SOLDIERS.  
(From Bayeux Tapestry.)

possessions among the lesser lords, and these again to the small freeholders. Every man is bound to some one in the class above him by the pledges of fealty and homage. He owes his superior definite services, and in turn has a claim to protection and justice from him.

**5. Jurisdiction of the Lords.**—Already, under Edward the Confessor, many lords had possessed the right of trying criminals on their own estates. These *manors*, as they now were called,

largely increased in numbers, and shut out the authority of the local courts and of the king. Henry I. and II., however, forced all barons to admit the king's officers into their courts.

**6. Rise of Villenage.**—The smaller freeman continued to hold his little estate, subject in the main to the same services or rent that he had been paying before the stranger came; but gradually, from merely owing service to a great baron for their own lands, these men

came to be considered as *villeins*—tied down to the lord's estate, unable to leave the *vill*, or township, which it was their duty to cultivate. They were sold with it, and lived wholly at the mercy of their lord.

**7. The Great Council.**—The Witenagemot, till now the sovereign assembly of the nation, disappeared, and was replaced by an institution which inherited many of its powers, and in which many of its members reappeared—the *Great Council*. New laws could only be made and extraordinary taxes granted with its "*counsel and consent*." It consisted of the great landholders, nominally of all the tenants-in-chief—that is, of all who received their lands directly of the king and owed him direct service for them. Three times a year the king held his court in solemn state, and gathered his chief officers round him to render him the services in return for which their manors had been given them. Thither came his stewards, his constables, and his chamberlains, to serve their lord at Christmas, at Easter, and at Whitsuntide, in the three great cities of the south—Gloucester, Winchester, and Westminster. Then, too, he and his officers judged charges against the tenants-in-chief, and such cases as were brought before them from the lower courts.

**8. The Curia Regis.**—But at other times only the special servants of the king could regularly attend his council, and aid him in his arduous task of government and justice; and it was these who gradually formed the permanent *Curia Regis*, or "Court of the King," out of which the House of Lords and the Great Council, as well as the various law courts, have grown. Under Henry I. the officers of the King's Court began to make tours over the whole land, sitting in the local courts for the purpose of dealing the people a better justice than the old-fashioned processes of ordeal and compurgation could secure.



royal hands till their owner came of age (*wardship*). William Rufus established feudalism in its worst forms. His minister, Ranulf Flambard, pressed this new class of claims to the utmost—no daughter of a tenant-in-chief might marry without paying an immense fine to the king; and the feudal claims were enforced, so far as was possible, upon bishops and abbots, before they could obtain possession of their baronies. It was Henry I. who gave relief in these matters to his own tenants, and at the same time bade them give their under-vassals the same rights that he was granting them.

10. **The Army.**—The army again was maintained upon the double system—the English and the Norman. As head of the nation, the king could call out the national *fyrð*; as special lord of his own tenants-in-chief—who held their lands on this condition—he could call on these for forty days' service.

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## CHAPTER XV.

### THE PLANTAGENET MONARCHY.

1. **Henry II.'s Work** (1154—1189).—The new king was just twenty-one years of age. With his accession England became part of the great monarchy of the House of Anjou, or Plantagenet, which embraced the whole of Western France and stretched to the Pyrenees. It was the aim of his life to carry on the work which his grandfather had begun; to crush out the lingering tendencies towards feudalism; to calm down the turmoil of Stephen's time; to enforce his lordship over the British Isles, as well as over Great Britain itself; and to bind them into a single empire with his continental dominions.

2. **Early Reforms.**—The king proceeded to depose





Stephen's new earls, thus saving the revenue, and resumed the royal lands which had been given away. He demolished the castles, of which more than 1,100 are said to have been lately built. He restored the coinage, and forced the King of Scotland to surrender the northern counties. Wherever the great barons would not yield at once—as on the Welsh marches—the king called out the *fyrd* against them. By these means quiet was restored to the country, though its exhausted state is shown in the fact that the revenue, which in Henry I.'s reign had been £66,000, had now sunk to only £22,000.

**3. Relations with France.**—By birthright Henry held Normandy, Brittany, Anjou, and Maine, while by marriage with Louis VII.'s divorced wife Eleanor he became lord of Poitou, Guienne, and Gascony—an immense inheritance compared with the narrow strip of land, which was all that the kings of France really possessed in their own realm. In addition to this, he had a claim on Toulouse, which would have carried his frontier to the Rhone; and, in 1156, he led an army to make it good. The conduct of the expedition was mainly left to Becket, but was unsuccessful. On the conclusion of peace, the young son of Henry married the daughter of Louis; but this union only gave rise to fresh disputes as to dowry, and during the rest of Henry's reign he was constantly at war with France. The French king took sides with every enemy of Henry, seizing every opportunity to stir up strife and to undermine this immense Angevin dominion, which was strangling the power of France.

**4. Improvement of the Law.**—Following Henry I.'s plan, the justiciar and chancellor passed yearly through the shires, dealing out justice in the king's name, and limiting more and more the powers of the baronial courts.

5. **Trial by Jury.**—It was in Henry's reforms that the great English institution of *Trial by Jury*—the trial of the freeman's cause by twelve freemen like himself—began to take definite shape. It was a primitive principle of the Teutonic nations that a man should be judged, not by the will of the king, but by the judgment of his *peers*, or equals. Feudal vassals had originally the right to be tried only in their lord's court, amongst their equals; and, as we have seen, justice had in England always been administered in and by the popular courts of the Hundred or the Shire, twelve men acting for the rest.

6. **The Grand Jury.**—Twelve men were appointed to present to the Shire-moot for sentence to the ordeal all persons whom, after investigation, they believed guilty of crime. Henry II. now enforced this ancient custom by the "Assize of Clarendon" (1166). The twelve men who were to present suspected criminals for the ordeal are the ancestors of the modern *Grand Jury*, which decides at the assizes whether there is ground to proceed with the trial of each criminal. The ordeal still continued for a while to be the only method of finally condemning a criminal.

7. **The Petty Jury.**—But about fifty years later the Church awoke to the folly and barbarity of ordeals, and forbade them. It gradually became the custom to form a jury of the witnesses and those who had most knowledge of the facts; and instead of relying upon the chances of the ordeal, they threshed out the facts from their own knowledge, and from the evidence of others whom they summoned, and gave evidence accordingly. It was soon found convenient to separate the witnesses and choose the Petty Jury solely for its impartiality; and this is the modern custom.

8. **The Grand Assize.**—Meanwhile the same principle had been applied by Henry II. to *civil causes*, or

causes in which not crime, but only questions of property were involved. Disputes as to landed property were tried at the King's Court, or before his own officers, by the evidence of twelve honest men from the neighbourhood, well acquainted with the real state of the case, instead of by a duel between the claimants—the *wager of battle*—which had been the custom of the Normans, and had been introduced by them into England. This more reasonable method was called Trial by *Grand Assize*. Here also, in time, the jury ceased to be chosen from the witnesses, and the method was extended to the decision of all civil cases.

9. **Scutage.**—The French wars led to an important change in the relations between the king and the baronage. In the Toulouse campaign many English knights who owed forty days' military service to the king for their lands did not care to follow him abroad. So they paid him a fine instead, called *scutage* (1259), and Henry hired mercenary troops with the money. Thenceforward this became a frequent custom. The tenants-in-chief ceased to be mere warriors of the king, and held aloof from his French quarrels; while their payments enabled the king to create an independent mercenary army, which could be used against them, and be kept in the field as long as was necessary.

10. **The Law and the Clergy.**—The chief agent in Henry's earlier reforms was Thomas à Becket, the Chancellor. Henry's object was that there should be but one law—that of the king—throughout the land. But there still remained one great section of the nation—the clergy—standing completely outside the general order; and they included not only the actual ministers of religion, but a vast number of men engaged in secular callings (like Becket himself), who had been brought up as "clerks"—that is, merely to read and write. Since William I. had separated the lay from the clerical

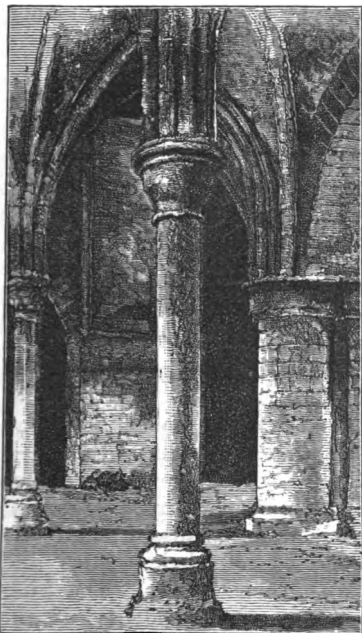
courts, these clerks were tried for all offences before the court of their bishop, and not before those of the king and the nation. Now, as these ecclesiastical courts could only punish a man by degrading him from holy orders and by penance, the very worst crimes—such as murder—often went without their due chastisement. To put an end to this unrighteous state of things was Henry's chief concern now, and who could help him in this work so well as his faithful chancellor, if made Archbishop of Canterbury? So, against Becket's will, Henry forced him to be Archbishop (1162).

**11. Change in Becket's Character.**—But, from the moment of his appointment, Becket's whole life and ideas of life were changed. From being the servant of his king, he became the servant of the Church, upholding all her privileges, however trifling and however unjust they might be. No longer the king's companion in revelry and jest, he wore the coarsest sackcloth, and ate the most meagre food; and he now resisted Henry's wish to have clerical offenders tried by the ordinary courts.

**12. Constitutions of Clarendon (1164).**—Henry was baffled and enraged. He insisted upon the submission of Becket to the Constitutions of Clarendon, by which criminal clerks were to lose their privileges; no tenant-in-chief was to be excommunicated without the king's consent; appeals to Rome were checked, and the Church was no longer to be the judge in her own claims to land.

**13. Flight to France and Murder.**—The archbishop, disgraced, plundered, and defeated, fled from the country. Louis VII. of France was only too glad to receive an enemy of his rival king and subject. The Pope gave him a more timid support. Becket proceeded to excommunicate the ministers and the bishops

who took sides with Henry. At last, however, they were again reconciled, and in 1170 Becket was permitted to return. But he at once excommunicated his old enemies afresh. The king's wrath returned, and four of his knights, thinking to please him, murdered the archbishop in his own cathedral (1170).



SITE OF BECKET'S GRAVE, CANTERBURY  
CRYPT.

**14. Conquest of Ireland.**—The whole of Christendom was appalled at the crime, and Henry was held responsible. At the beginning of his reign Henry had been commissioned by Adrian IV., an English Pope, to bring back the Irish Church under the authority of Rome. Now, therefore, to avoid meeting the Papal legate who came to excommunicate him, and to appease the Pope, he set out for Ireland. There

he received the submission of the Irish chiefs, and for the first time an English king was over-lord of Ireland. But on the Continent things were very threatening. Louis was intriguing against him with Henry's queen, Eleanor—once his own wife—and with his sons. Henry saw it would be wisest to submit; the Constitutions of

Clarendon were given up, and the king was reconciled to Rome (1172).

**15. Last Rebellion of Norman Lords (1174).—**Henry was now called upon to face the last great rising of the Norman barons on English soil. They were offended by the king's reforms; their old powers were dwindling; their castles had passed into the king's hands, and they must make one effort or all would be lost. So in Normandy and England they rose; the young Henry demanded Normandy and England for himself, and fled to his father-in-law, Louis, who with the King of Scots had joined the league to break up Henry's dominion. In Normandy the king took the field against Louis personally, and within the year all the rebels there had submitted. At home Henry's throne would have fallen but for the fidelity of the great justiciar, Richard de Lucy, and the mass of the people. Once more the *fyrd* was called out to the king's support. The King of Scots was taken prisoner and forced to acknowledge Henry as his lord; and the king soon reduced the rebels to submission. But after the victory he was generous and true to his word. The mercenary troops, brought over in such urgent need, were dismissed; and the conspirators, though deprived of their castles and heavily fined, were left with their estates. The king had owed his triumph to the steady fidelity of the body of English landowners whom his wise reforms had rescued from feudal oppression (1174).

**16. Circuits of King's Justices.—**The next few years were passed in peaceful work at home. Year after year the king's justices went their rounds through all the shires, knitting them more closely to the crown, and bringing the righteous judgments of the King's Court to correct the scanty justice which the ordeal and trial by combat could afford. Among other ways of increas-

ing the royal authority, all the old sheriffs were removed at one sweep, and their places taken by officers from the king's exchequer. Before this the sheriffs in each county had been chosen from the great local barons. So in every way Henry was using the growing energy of his own court to strengthen the lax institutions of the country and supply their deficiencies.

**17. The Rebel Princes.**—The last years of the king's life were troubled by rebellions amongst his sons, Henry, Richard, and Geoffrey. Prince Henry died, but the others continued to find a staunch supporter in the new king of France, Philip Augustus. At last came news that Jerusalem had fallen before the Saracen Emir, Saladin (1187); and the indignation roused by such a loss to Christendom induced the two kings to lay aside their enmities and make common cause against the common foe. But peace could not last. The king's health was failing, and Richard feared that the father he had so deeply wronged would not leave him his heir. He determined to seize the French dominions for himself. Philip helped him, and one by one in his last years Henry saw his lands falling into Philip's hands. He had now to give up everything, and promise pardon to all the rebels; a list of names was handed in, and at their head he found that of John, his youngest and his favourite son. This broke his heart, and murmuring "Shame, shame on a conquered king," he died (1189).

**18. Summary of the Reign.**—But the work of his life could not pass away in this manner. He had asserted the supremacy of the English king over all other parts of the British Isles. William the Lion of Scotland, who had been taken prisoner in the great rebellion of 1174, had done homage to him in a special manner. In his reign England had been drawn into closer connection with the Continent by marriage, and English



lawyers had reorganised the Norman government in Sicily as Henry had done in England.

19. But the most lasting part of his work was done at home. Here he brought the royal justice within the reach of all; he began to overthrow (in his own courts at least) the uncertain methods of deciding between right and wrong, and to supplant them by the evidence of sworn witnesses of good repute; and he did much towards the final suppression of the oppressive privileges of baronial courts. All people in his realm knew that in his officers and himself there was to be found a last resource against tyranny and injustice. He had saved them from the miseries of Stephen's reign, and their gratitude was shown when shire after shire mustered its *fyrð* to raze the hated castles on the Welsh border (1154), or to beat back the Scotch invasion twenty years later.

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## CHAPTER XVI.

### THE KING AND THE NATION.

1. **Richard I** (1189—1199).—The last reign had made the kingdom peaceful, the administration strong, the baronage subdued, and the nation contented. The new baronage of Henry I.'s ministers and Henry II.'s servants was English in feeling, and knew that it was their interest to strengthen the crown to which they owed so much. But the character of the new king, Richard, undid all this. His early years had been spent in France, where he had drunk in the foreign ideas of feudalism till he could no longer understand the duties of an English king. England was to him a mere treasure-house to supply the money for his wars against his French over-lord, or his Crusade. He loved

all kinds of excitement and battle; peace and order he neither wished for nor understood. Out of a reign of ten years, he hardly spent six months in England. His whole soul was bent on getting glory in the Crusades. To secure money for his war in Palestine, every office was taken from its late owner and sold to the highest bidder. The suzerainty which his father had won over William of Scotland was sold also; and so Richard left his new realm behind him.

**2. Longchamp and Prince John.**—To secure the safety of the kingdom in his absence, he bound his brother John, whom he had gifted with immense estates, to leave England for three years. There should be no play-king while the real king was away. William Longchamp, who as legate of the Pope controlled the resources of the Church, was made Chancellor and Justiciar, and proved a faithful servant, though tyrannical towards the English people. In the event of Richard's death in Palestine, Longchamp began to prepare the way for the succession of the king's legal heir, Arthur, Count of Brittany, son of his brother Geoffrey. John hastened to England to assert his own claim, whereupon Longchamp began to seize the castles of John's friends, and even went so far as to imprison Geoffrey, Archbishop of York, his half-brother. But a league of the Church with John and the barons forced Longchamp to let him go. A great council was held at London, by which, under Richard's authority, the justiciarship was put into new hands.

**3. Richard's Captivity** (1192). — Meanwhile Richard had reached the Holy Land, after fighting with the King of Sicily and conquering Cyprus upon his way. His splendid bravery and brilliant victories won him the title of *Cœur de Lion*. But one by one his French and German allies in the Crusade fell off and would go no further. Richard started for England

with a handful of followers. He was shipwrecked on the way, and before long all Europe was startled by the news that the King of England was a prisoner in the hands of the German Emperor, who demanded £100,000 as a ransom.

**4. Demands for Money.**—Every means had to be used for raising such an immense sum. An *aïd* was levied on each knight's fee; but as this would only touch the greater lords, the small landowners were to pay a tax on all their plough-land, and the towns a tallage. Even the plate of the churches was seized. Thanks to these efforts, the king was liberated, and spent two months of the year 1194 in England, though only to extort money from a land to which he was to return no more. His whole soul was indignant at the treachery of his former friend Philip, who had been urging John to seize the throne during his captivity. To his brother, on his repentance, Richard was as forgiving and generous as ever; but there could be no peace with the French king. The rest of the reign is but an account of the various means used for supplying Richard with money for his French wars. The plan of taxing plough-land was continued, and a new domesday book was ordered to be compiled for this purpose.

**5. Refusal of a Scutage.**—The constant demand for money told at last. In 1198 the barons refused to pay the scutage; the Bishop of Lincoln declared that his lands were not bound to furnish soldiers for fighting beyond the seas, and he would not pay to be excused a duty which he did not owe. The English were beginning to resist the taxation which the king's foreign wars entailed. The spirit which dictated the Great Charter was already moving.

**6. Death of Richard.**—Meanwhile Richard, pushing on his designs of revenge on Philip, was securing Normandy with new fortifications; for the Normans

were restless under the rule of their hereditary enemies, the Angevins. But he was struck down before the walls of the little castle of Chaluz, where he believed a great treasure was concealed.

7. **John** (1199—1216).—On Richard's death, John was in France; and, trusting that the justiciar would secure his succession at home, he spent six weeks in trying to wrest the continental possessions out of the hands of his nephew Arthur. For though this young boy was the son of John's elder brother Geoffrey, the English Council passed him by—as it had the right to do—and elected John to the vacant throne.

8. **Loss of Normandy** (1204).—Before long the young prince fell into John's hands, who was suspected of having murdered him. Upon this, Philip summoned him, as a Peer of France, to appear at Paris for trial. John answered that an English king was subject to no such claim, and Philip in reply declared all his French lordships forfeited. The years 1204 and 1205 saw Normandy, Anjou, and Maine fall into Philip's hands; and in 1206 John, who had made no real attempt to save his provinces abroad, but had merely used their danger as an excuse for raising scutages to waste on his own pleasures, finally gave up these provinces to the French king. Thus was laid the real basis of the power of the French monarchs; henceforth they were more powerful than any of their vassals, and from this time their authority and power went on increasing from day to day, and crushing down all rivals. For England the loss of Normandy meant even more. Henceforth our barons were not to have estates on both sides of the Channel: they must cast in their lot with Englishmen or with Frenchmen; and before long they joined as Englishmen in claiming the old English privileges, and wrested the Great Charter from the king himself for the benefit of the whole land.

**9. Quarrel with the Pope.**—The death of Hubert, Archbishop of Canterbury (1205), brought John into a new series of troubles. There was a dispute as to the right of electing the new primate—whether it lay with the monks of Canterbury or with the bishops of the province. Each appealed to the great Pope, Innocent III., and he set aside both candidates for one of his own—Stephen Langton. John would not acknowledge him. Year after year the gulf between king and Pope grew wider. The estates of all the bishops and clergy who recognised Langton were seized, and their owners driven abroad. At last, in 1280, the kingdom was laid under an interdict. No sacrament could be administered even to the dying; the dead man was buried without Christian services, and the churches were closed. Next year the king himself was excommunicated, and as this, too, failed to move him, in 1211 Innocent called upon Philip of France to depose him. Then at last John did begin to tremble, and to court the people whom he had been robbing. But as they stood aloof, the king had to make his submission, and promise that henceforth he would be the Pope's vassal, and hold the crown of England under the Pope as over-lord—just as the Norman dukes had held South Italy. Langton, too, was accepted as archbishop. Having by these means appeased his most powerful foe, John determined to recover his foreign possessions.

**10. The Northern Barons.**—But the barons now refused to follow him abroad. Year after year they had watched him in disgust, calling his army together and then disbanding it without striking a blow, on payment of a fine. Year after year the old tax on plough-land and the scutage had been raised at increased rates. Now they would meet no more for any expedition at the king's summons. Why should they win back for their king the provinces his cowardice had

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## HANDWRITING FROM THE GREAT CHARTER.

## 11. The Council at St. Albans.

—In John's absence the justiciar and the new archbishop held a meeting of the barons at St. Albans (to which four men from each town in the royal domains came), and demanded that the old laws of Henry I. should be maintained. Hardly was this meeting over, when the justiciar died, and the king was left without restraint. "Now am I," he exclaimed, "for the first time king and lord of England!" While John was abroad the barons met once more at Bury St. Edmund's, and swore that if the king would not give them back their rights, they would renounce their allegiance, and make war upon him. It was in vain that John now attempted to win over the Church, by promising to the clergy the right of electing their bishops. The barons came into London—a town which sympathised with them—they drew up their demands for the Reform of the Government in the Great Charter, and the king found himself compelled to sign it to avert the total loss of his kingdom.

**12. The Great Charter (1215).—**The Great Charter, in its sixty-three clauses, claims to be only an expansion of the laws of Henry I. The

evil customs of the last two reigns were to be abolished, and things were to be restored to their old perfection. But it was in reality much more than this. The laws of the twelfth century could not meet the necessities of the thirteenth without any change. New ideas had been born, and these needed to be embodied in the law.

13. First of all, the rights of the Church were to be preserved; then the king was to take no tax, except three stated *aids*, without the consent of his *Great Council*—i.e., of the tenants-in-chief, who were to be summoned to meet for the purpose—the greater ones by special letter, the lesser ones by the sheriff's proclamation; the simple freeman was to be tried before his equals, as the great lord before his, by the law of the land; no one, peasant or lord, was to be fined so as to ruin him; merchants might come in and out of the land to trade, and should pay only fair dues. Such were the chief features of the Great Charter, of which all later English constitutional liberty is but a development. It is the first great Act of the Anglo-Norman nation, which, severed from the Continent, here commenced its national development, and under the guidance of the Church and the Barons, gradually infused into the masterly administration of the Normans the antique spirit of English equality and freedom.

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## CHAPTER XVII.

### ENGLAND FOR THE ENGLISH.

1. **The French Prince.**—Though John had signed the Great Charter, he did not mean to abide by its promises. He at once claimed that the Pope—not only as his liege-lord, but also as the head of the Christian Church—should release him from his engagements.

Pandulf, therefore, as Papal legate, excommunicated the baronial party. Stephen Langton, as archbishop, set out for Rome to get the sentence recalled. Meanwhile each side was gathering its forces together. The king's enemies offered the crown to Louis, the heir of Philip Augustus, while John occupied the time in marching through the whole north, laying waste and confiscating the lands of his enemies. But this triumph was of short duration. In May, 1216, the French prince at last landed. The great earls deserted John. London remained true to the popular cause, and the sole strength of the royal party was in the fidelity of the great Earl of Pembroke, a few other lords, and the mercenary troops, whom the nation hated.

2. **Death of John (1216).**—But the end was very near. As John was hurrying south, burning and ravaging wherever he came, he fell ill at Newark and died, leaving the crown to his son Henry, a boy of nine years of age (1216—1272).

3. **The Young King.**—This event changed the whole situation. The stern necessity which had led the barons to invite a stranger into England disappeared. There was a young king of tender years, who, with wise management, might be trained up to respect his people's rights. As the legitimate heir he retained the full support of the Papacy. The English Church had no longer cause to resist the Pope's authority, and hailed the opportunity of reconciliation, while Henry's helpless condition appealed to all for pity.

4. **Expulsion of the Foreigners.**—William Marshall, Earl of Pembroke, was appointed *Guardian of the Kingdom*. He at once issued a confirmation of the Great Charter, in the hopes of thus binding all English hearts closer to their king. One after another the great barons fell off from Louis. The battle of



Lincoln (1217) completed the ruin of his cause in the central counties. His followers were driven back to London; while, near Dover, Hubert de Burgh destroyed the French fleet that was bringing across a fresh army. To add to his other difficulties, Louis was excommunicated by the Pope, and was at last only too glad to leave the kingdom, after securing some payment for the expenses he had incurred, and a pardon for his allies. But the mercenary troops whom John had brought over to fight his battles, and the French nobles, into whose hands he had entrusted so many of the royal castles, had yet to be shaken off. Unfortunately, in the middle of his work of restoring the royal authority, the good regent died.

**5. The Three Parties.**—Three men now came into prominence, representing the three interests of the land; first of all, the office of Protector fell into the hands of Hubert de Burgh—a far-sighted statesman, bent on carrying out the chief of Pembroke's ideas; then came the king's tutor, or guardian, Peter des Roches, a foreign bishop, and a friend of foreigners; lastly, there was the Papal legate, Pandulf, bound to look after the interests of the Pope, who claimed to be the young king's over-lord.

**6. Hubert de Burgh.**—It was Hubert de Burgh's policy to win back into the royal hands all the castles and domains which had been granted away to foreigners in the confusion of the last few years, or usurped by English lords. Against these lawless robbers—especially against one Falkes de Breauté—he called out the county *fyrð*; the Pope aided by excommunicating them, and in 1224 the chances of the strangers looked so poor that their patron, Peter des Roches, Bishop of Winchester, left the land for a while. In his absence the work of reform went on, but Henry grew tired of the minister who had made his crown secure. He

was bent on regaining his hereditary power in France, and undertook, against Hubert's wishes, an expedition into Brittany. At last, listening to evil advice, and thinking he was now old enough to take matters into his own hands, Henry accused Hubert of dishonesty and treason, and presently imprisoned him (1232).

**7. Peter des Roches.**— Peter des Roches had meanwhile returned. To him and to his French friends the king was only too ready to lend an ear, and he began, like his father, to gather round him foreign soldiers to enforce his will. But his rule was short; bishops and barons alike refused to meet a strange prelate in council. William Marshall's son, the new Earl of Pembroke, took up arms, and Edward Rich, the Archbishop of Canterbury, threatened to excommunicate the king himself, if the favourite and his foreigners were not dismissed.

**8. Henry's own Rule.**— But the Earl of Pembroke fell fighting in Ireland, and the constitutional party was left for a time without a champion. Henry resolved to rule himself. He would only have subordinate barons in the great offices of state, while he would himself direct the government. But for such a task he was too weak, and the disastrous results of the attempt were soon felt on all sides. For many years all England was rified by Henry's foreign relatives, who



COSTUME OF THE 13TH  
CENTURY.

swarmed across the Channel to build up their fortunes on English soil.

9. **Marriage and the Foreigners.**—In 1236 the young king married Eleanor, the daughter of the Count of Provence. In her train came her uncle, William of Valence; and soon a rumour went abroad that the king had sworn to do nothing without the consent of this stranger and eleven other peers. This would be to model the English Government after the fashion of the court of France, where the twelve great feudal vassals, the “Peers of France,” formed the highest court of the realm. The whole country was roused, and the scheme was withdrawn.

10. **Papal Encroachments.**—The Barons had other grievances besides those of the state. Year after year had seen the Popes, in their new character of over-lords, making special claims on English labour and English property. One year a large sum was exacted, on pretence of a Crusade which never started; another year would bring an order that no Englishman should be presented to a good living till a shoal of 800 greedy Italians had been provided for. The leader of the party for clerical reform was Robert Grosseteste, Bishop of Lincoln. In every way he endeavoured to remedy the corruption of the times. He would ordain no priest in his diocese unless he were of a holy life, and on one occasion he even refused to give a benefice to the Pope’s nephew. To counteract the loose manners of the Church, he showed much favour to the two newly-formed orders of friars—the Franciscans and the Dominicans—who, sworn to poverty and the sole service of God, were just beginning to work a marvellous reformation in the Western world.

11. **Fresh Foreigners.**—Meanwhile the new queen’s kinsmen came pressing in in greater numbers than ever; one was elected Archbishop of Canterbury, another

was made Earl of Richmond, and another got a tax given him on every sack of English wool that went abroad; others were married to the richest heiresses in England. Added to this, Louis IX. of France granted away Poitou, one of the English possessions abroad, to his brother, and Henry had to support his honour against this insult by war (1241—1242).

**12. Claims of the Barons.**—So once more he called his Parliament together and asked for money; but, since they would not give him this, he had to content himself with raising a scutage, to which he had a right. Up to this time the leader of the opposition had been the king's brother, Richard, Earl of Cornwall; but on his return from a Crusade he had married one of the queen's sisters and gone over to the royal side. In his train came fresh foreigners to settle on all the good offices and estates in England. And now, year after year, there is nothing to record but fresh charges against the continental favourites of both king and Pope. The king's extravagance, however, gave the barons their great hold upon him. The Great Council offered him money if he would allow it to appoint his great officers, the Justiciar, the Treasurer, and the Chancellor, to see that it was properly spent. These officers were in theory the private servants of the king; but now the nation claimed the right of seeing that they were men fit to carry on the national government. At first this demand was refused (1244). Then the discontent grew general. In 1254 two knights appeared in Parliament from each county to represent the smaller landholders, or tenants-in-chief, who had now quite lost the habit of attending the king's council.

**13. Sicily and the King's Bankruptcy.**—It was not till 1256 that things came to a crisis. The king's debts were enormous. He had accepted the crown of Sicily from the Pope for his young son Edmund, and

had spent vast sums in enforcing the claim. The king was in despair, and the barons had a new leader now to lead them in their opposition.

14. **Simon de Montfort and the Mad Parliament.**—When the Earl of Cornwall deserted the baronial party his place was taken by Simon de Montfort, Earl of Leicester. Originally he had been one of the most hated of the foreigners, for he had married the king's sister Eleanor and entered into an English earldom. But Simon de Montfort in leaving France threw off all French feeling, and became heart and soul an Englishman. Under him, in 1258, the barons assembled at Oxford in full armour to insist on certain reforms. The novelty of the demands presented by them to the king in the *Provisions of Oxford* won for them from their enemies the name of the *Mad Parliament*. They demanded that Englishmen only should hold the great English offices, that castles should no longer be placed in foreign hands, that the Pope's exactions should cease, and that English heiresses should not be forced to marry strange husbands from abroad. The kingdom was to be governed by a Permanent Council of fifteen great barons, which was to meet three times a year; two committees, of twenty-four members each, were to make arrangements for a money grant, and to draw up a plan for the reformation of the chief abuses.

15. **Battle of Lewes (1264).** **Simon de Montfort's Parliament.**—Henry soon began to chafe under this tutelage. His quarrel with the barons was still smouldering, when, in 1262, the Pope freed him from his oath to observe the Provisions of Oxford. A fresh swarm of followers crowded in, and war was imminent. It was in vain that the questions in dispute were referred to the saintly Louis IX. of France: he was himself a king, and saw things from the royal standpoint.

De Montfort refused to accept his decision, and for the moment the king's party was shattered in the battle of Lewes, where the king, his brother, and his son Edward were all taken prisoners. In a capitulation, called the "Mise of Lewes," Henry bound himself to take the Great Council's advice in the choice of his ministers and his expenditure (1264). And to settle the government, Simon de Montfort called together his famous parliament—the first English parliament in which citizens had a place. Two knights were now in 1265 elected to represent each county, and two citizens for each of the principal towns.

16. **Battle of Evesham** (1265).—The triumph of the baronial party was short. It fell into two factions—one, that of the Earl of Gloucester, which would have kept for the great barons alone all that was won from the crown; the other that of De Montfort, which would have enlarged the privileges of the people too. Taking advantage of this division, the young prince Edward escaped from captivity, and defeated and slew the Earl of Leicester in the battle of Evesham, 1265. With De Montfort's fall his party was ruined; but Henry and his son Edward had learnt wisdom in their adversity. The barons, though heavily fined, were promised pardon; and though the king regained the right to appoint the national ministers, yet the supremacy of the law, even over the crown, was thenceforth established. In the Parliament of Marlborough, the king of his own free-will, at his son Edward's advice, granted the chief reforms that the Mad Parliament had asked for. Soon after the young prince led the wilder members of the baronage off to the Crusades, and did not return till nearly two years after his father's death.

## CHAPTER XVIII.

## THE FOUNDING OF PARLIAMENT.

1. **Edward I's Aims** (1272—1307).—Edward I. came home to a kingdom where the courts of law had been working regularly during his absence, and the general order of the country had been preserved as though he were present. It was the great aim of his reign to complete the outline of the Constitution in Parliament and elsewhere, to reduce all other authority to that of the king, and above all else, if it were possible, to do what his ancestor, Henry II., had failed to accomplish—to make the clergy realise that they were part of the people, and did not stand outside the rest of the realm. From henceforth there was to be no manor from which the royal justices were to be excluded; every subtenant, capable of doing service in the wars as a knight, was to join the army at the king's command; he was no longer to be excused because he held his land of some middle-lord and not directly of the king. In these points Edward attained his aim. But such was his passion for order and unity that he would have gone farther. There should no longer be three kings in one island; he would at least attempt to have the other two really subject to his rule; or, better still, they should cease to rule, and he should be single lord from the Pentland Firth to the English Channel. In his last attempt he was only to be partially successful.

2. **Law Reforms and Manors**.—The early years of the reign were marked by the slow development of the royal power and the enforcement of order. Great lawyers were invited from Italy to help in drawing up a series of law-books for the land. These, with the wise servants whom Edward chose from his own sub-

jects, gradually made the king's power more and more effectual for reforming the defects of the lower courts. In 1275 the Statute of Westminster was passed—a statute which sums up in itself, the spirit of Henry II.'s laws, the Great Charter, and the Statute of Marlborough. In return for this great Act the Parlia-



GREAT SEAL OF EDWARD I.

ment granted a tax upon wool—which is important as being the first instance of a legal duty laid on this article, and as showing the importance of the trade. This was followed in a few years by an inquiry into the title-deeds by which the barons held their estates, which was viewed with disgust by what remained of the old baronage. Who was this lawyer-king that he should come questioning their rights to their old manors? "See, my lords," cried the Earl of Warrenne, producing a rusty sword, "here is my warrant. My ancestors



came with William the Bastard and won their lands with the sword, and with the sword will I defend them." The object of this inquiry was to check the growth of those "liberties," or manor-courts, where the lords judged cases without reference to the hundred or the shire—a privilege which the great barons had long been claiming even where they had no right to it. By the Statute of *Quia Emptores* (1290), the creation of new manors was forbidden, and the seller of lands could no longer claim to be the feudal lord of the purchaser. This was followed by a fresh edict bidding all freeholders possessed of land worth £20 a year to receive knighthood, no matter of what over-lord they held. By so doing they would be liable to serve in the king's army for forty days, or pay a scutage in default.

**3. Statute of Mortmain (1279).**—In yet another way the crown had been gradually losing services which were its due. Lands held "*in mortmain*" (in the "dead hand," that is, of the Church, as opposed to the possession of a living warrior), were free from military service, and in order to avoid feudal obligations, lands were often nominally made over to monasteries on condition that their former owner should receive them back as a vassal of the Church. To check this practice—by which in time the whole land of the nation might have passed into clerical hands—Edward issued the Statute of Mortmain, forbidding any such grants to be made on penalty of the estate being forfeited to the over-lord, and if he failed to enforce his claim, to the king.

**4. Statute of Winchester (1285).**—A few years later Edward extended still further his military organisation of the nation. The great Statute of Winchester called upon all Englishmen, between the ages of fifteen and sixty, in town and country, to furnish themselves with arms according to their wealth; whilst to make

travelling secure, the chief highways were to be cleared of the thick brushwood which lined them for two hundred yards on either side, lest robbers might hide in them to pounce upon the traveller.

**5. Annexation of Wales (1283).**—By this time Edward's attention was directed towards Wales. He would no longer suffer the border counties to be in a state of constant war with the petty Welsh princes, and so form an exception to the general order of his realm. He would enforce to the full his just authority as overlord of that country, and complete the work which Henry II. had failed to carry out. Llewellyn, the Prince of North Wales, besides refusing to do homage, had been in alliance with the baronial party in the last reign, and, after some time spent in negotiation, Edward led his army into Wales and drove Llewellyn into Anglesea (1277), whence Llewellyn sent a full submission, binding himself to pay an enormous fine and to give up the eastern part of his territory.

6. The peace, however, did not last long. Under the guidance of their prince and his brother David, the Welsh once more rose in arms. Llewellyn was at last slain in the battle of Builth in South Wales, 1282. Next year his brother David was taken prisoner, and after being tried before a Parliament at Shrewsbury, was condemned as a traitor and executed. Then Wales was formally added to the English crown and divided into counties. There was henceforth but one king and one nation south of the Solway Firth. But, to soothe the Welsh for the loss of their independence, Edward gave them a nominal ruler of their own in his young son, who took the title of Prince of Wales.

**7. Relation of the King of Scotland to the King of England.**—The interest of the external history of the reign is now removed to the north. We have seen how in early English times the King of Scotland had re-

ceived part of Strathclyde and the north part of the old English kingdom of Northumbria as fiefs from Edmund and Canute. On many occasions since he had acknowledged the English king as his over-lord, though it had latterly been his custom to claim that this homage was done for estates which the Scotch monarch held in England, and not as king of that part of the old Anglian kingdom which had now become the chief seat of the Scottish monarchy. He pretended that he was Edward's subject for his English earldoms alone, just as Edward owed service to the King of France for his duchies there. Whatever the pretences of the Scotch king, Edward aimed at turning this lordship into actual sovereignty, and it so chanced that circumstances seemed very favourable to his design.

8. **The Three Claimants.**—Alexander III. of Scotland died suddenly, owing to a fall from his horse, and left his young grand-daughter Margaret as heiress to his throne (1284). She was in Norway at the time of her grandfather's death, and Edward at once arranged for a marriage between this little lady and his own eldest son Edward. Margaret, however, died before the marriage could be completed, and at once twelve competitors started up to claim the crown (1290). Of these the chief were John Balliol, Robert Bruce (grandfather of the great Scottish king), and John Hastings.

9. **Edward's Decision.**—To decide this question the people of Scotland appealed to Edward as their over-lord, and he consented to decide between the claimants. Advancing to the borders with a large army, he demanded that all the Scotch nobles should acknowledge his supremacy. When this had been done, a commission of Scotchmen and Englishmen was appointed to try the case, and on their pronouncing in favour of Balliol, Edward declared him King of Scotland. The

new sovereign was crowned in 1292 after again swearing fealty to his over-lord.

10. **Vassal and Over-lord.**—Balliol soon began to find his position exceedingly trying. Now that he had once admitted the supremacy of the English king, nothing could prevent his Scotch subjects, if discontented with the justice dealt them by himself and his ministers, from appealing to Edward for redress. Time after time the new king was summoned to appear before his over-lord at Westminster, and, when Edward became involved in a quarrel with France, he called upon his vassal for aid. Balliol was compelled by the Scotch nobles to refuse to send assistance, to renounce his fealty, and at the same time to enter into alliance with Edward's enemy, the King of France (1295).

11. **Quarrel with France.**—Meanwhile Philip IV. of France was making the same demands on Edward that Edward had been making on Balliol. Edward was still lord of south-west France. His Gascon subjects were encouraged by Philip to appeal to himself as Edward's suzerain, and Philip summoned him to appear before him (1293). As Edward refused to obey this call, his French territories were declared forfeited, upon which he threw off his allegiance and made alliance against Philip with the neighbouring princes of Germany and Flanders, just as Balliol did with France. A Parliament was convened, which pledged itself to the recovery of Gascony, and England now stood committed to its first great foreign war. All the knights of England were summoned to meet at Portsmouth.

12. **Parliament of 1295.**—Edward, wishing to be supported by all classes of the nation, in November, 1295, called together his great Parliament, which was thereafter the model of all English Parliaments. "What touches all shall be approved by all," so runs

the introduction to the summons, "and common dangers must be met by measures concerted in common." He would have all England rally round him to strengthen his hands against a foreign enemy.

**13. The English Parliament.**—There had been incomplete Parliaments before; indeed the system was one which had not sprung up suddenly, but it was of very ancient origin and of very gradual growth. It depends on the idea of *representation*, the choice of a few men by a large number, to make known at a common meeting-place the wants and wishes of many, so that, as our forefathers expressed it, "what concerns all should be allowed by all." Now we find traces of this idea from the earliest times. The courts or meetings of the shire, which often corresponded to an ancient tribe or kingdom of the English, were attended by representatives from each village within it, who came to bear their part in the government of the whole shire, and to give evidence upon various subjects connected with it. After the union of all the shires under Wessex, there was no popular assembly for the whole kingdom, yet the king was guided and controlled by the Witenagemot, or Meeting of the Wise Men, to which came the civil and ecclesiastical rulers of the shires, and other great men of the kingdom.

**14. Origin of House of Lords.**—After the Norman Conquest, the Assembly of the Wise was no longer called together; it was too national a body to be submissive to a king who wished to have his own way in everything. It was replaced in some measure by the King's Great Council of his tenants-in-chief. The lesser barons amongst them gradually dropped away. They were called to the Council by a general summons of the Sheriff in the Court of the Shire, and eventually lost their right to attend personally, but joined with the other freeholders to elect "Knights of

the Shire" to represent them. The "greater barons" were summoned personally, and it gradually came to be understood that these had a hereditary right to attend. They held the privilege of attending the King's Court in the same way as they held the right of succeeding to the lands of their forefathers; and this King's Court developed in time into the assembly which we call the House of Lords.

**15. Origin of House of Commons.**—The primitive English method of representation, which had long been used in the local courts to assess men's taxes, to decide the right in law-suits, and to conduct local affairs, was first applied to the election of a National Assembly for purposes of taxation. In 1213 John, being engaged in his quarrel with the barons, called an assembly which was attended not only by the bishops and barons who were his friends, but also by the "reeve," an officer answering in many respects to our mayor, and four men from each town on the royal property. In others of these national councils knights came from each county to represent the landholders, but the towns were not represented. In 1265, however, Simon de Montfort assembled a Parliament, as it was now called, at which both knights of the shire and citizens from the towns attended. And in 1295 this became an established custom.

**16. Edward's Scheme.**—According to Edward's original idea, Parliament was to consist of four chambers, representing the various *Estates*, or classes, in the realm; and each chamber could only answer for the estate it represented. First in order came the chamber of the clergy, consisting of the representatives of the regular and secular clergy. The greater barons came next, consisting of the bishops, the great abbots (as holding baronial estates), and the most important tenants-in-chief—some forty-eight in number—who

were requested to attend by a special summons from the king. This estate is represented by the modern House of Lords. Next came the elected *Knights of the Shire*, representing the freeholders of the counties. Lastly—as yet of no great importance—the *Burgesses*, elected by about 166 of the principal towns.

**17. Later Development.**—Thus was the representation of the nation completed and embodied in the English Parliament. The clergy, however, were compelled by the Popes until the Reformation to hold apart from the general system of national government. They preferred, therefore, to meet and to grant their taxes in the “Convocations” of Canterbury and York, and so lost their claim to form part of Parliament. As time went on, the knights of the shire and the town members began to sit together, and gradually asserted their claim to other rights than that of merely deciding what contribution they would offer to the king. Before long we shall find the Commons petitioning for the redress of grievances, consenting to the laws which the king’s Great Council ordains, then drawing up bills themselves, appointing officers to see that the revenue is wisely expended, advising the king in foreign and domestic affairs, and, in fact, wielding all the old rights of the supreme Council of the Nation, with the one exception that they have never been admitted to any share in the judicial work of the kingdom. The House of Lords remained the Supreme Court of Appeal for the whole nation.

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## CHAPTER XIX.

### LANGUAGE, LITERATURE, AND LIFE.

**1. The Two Languages.**—With the invasion of the Normans, French became the language of society,

literature, and government. As the generation of the Conquest died out, the old tongue ceased to be used in literature, and was spoken by the lower orders of the people only. Even the great monasteries were now in Norman hands, and English literature gradually fell into neglect. In Peterborough alone the *English Chronicle* still continued the history of the realm, till it died out in 1154. Accordingly, the dialects of the several shires, being without any written standard, began to fall into decay, and the numerous inflexions of the earlier tongue were lost entirely or blurred over in a common indistinctness. But as yet the invading French and the native English language ran on side by side without mingling. French was spoken by the higher classes and the courts, while the lower orders still conducted the ordinary business of life in unmixed English.

2. **Latin Histories.**—During the years which followed the Conquest down to the reign of John, the great historical works were written in Latin. Into these Latin histories the monastic writers worked up scraps of the old English songs.

3. **French Romances.**—But Latin could only be understood by the learned and the priests. For the polished upper classes, Wace wrote the history of the Norman Conquest in rhyming French verse. Geoffrey of Monmouth discovered or invented the story of King Arthur, which Wace and Map translated into Norman French poetry, adding the legends of the Round Table, and of the sacred Cup from which our Lord took the Last Supper (1100—1200). These became the favourite poems of the age, and similar chivalrous themes in the same language continued to abound for the next two centuries.

4. **Revival of English Literature.**—From John's loss of Normandy the English tongue began steadily to gain ground. French and Latin still remained the



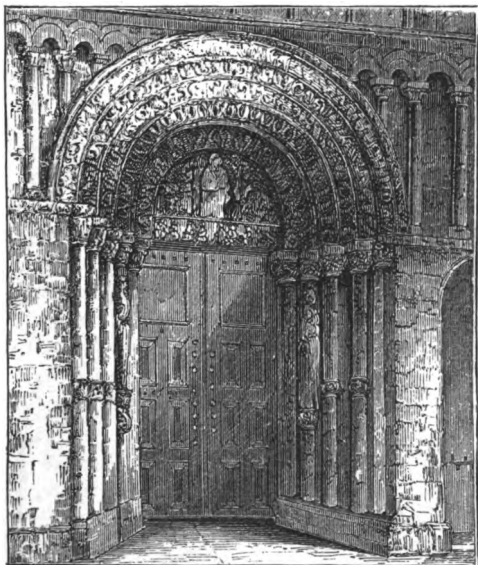
language of the court and the clergy, but English was universally spoken and understood. As early as the year 1200 the revival of English literature began. In his quiet parish on the banks of the Severn, Layamon translated the "Brut" of Wace into English for the benefit of his English-speaking kinsmen, calling upon them to pray for the soul of him who was telling them the story of their own land once more in their own tongue. Layamon's vocabulary is almost unmixed English. The old English alliterative verse lingered on through Layamon and Orm in popular verse till the latter half of the fourteenth century, when it expired in the "Vision of Piers Plowman." Its place was gradually taken by the form of *rhyme*, which was borrowed from the French.

**5. Rise of Modern English.**—It is in Rutland, Northamptonshire, and the neighbouring counties near the great Fen district, that the sources of our standard English of to-day are to be found. Robert Manning, at the end of the thirteenth century, first gave currency to this east-midland dialect. His "Handling Sin," in octosyllabic verse, became popular over all England, and his dialect presently became the accepted language of English literature under Chaucer and Wyclif.

**6. Introduction of French Words.**—But the language, like the nation, became impregnated with Norman elements. Old words had dropped into disuse by hundreds, and when English once more began to be used for literary purposes, their place was supplied by borrowed ones from the French. This process continued with astounding vigour during the fourteenth century, when countless native words had to give way to strangers from beyond the seas.

**7. Norman Architecture.**—The Normans wrought an immense change in architecture. Great cathedrals and churches began to rise all over the land. The early

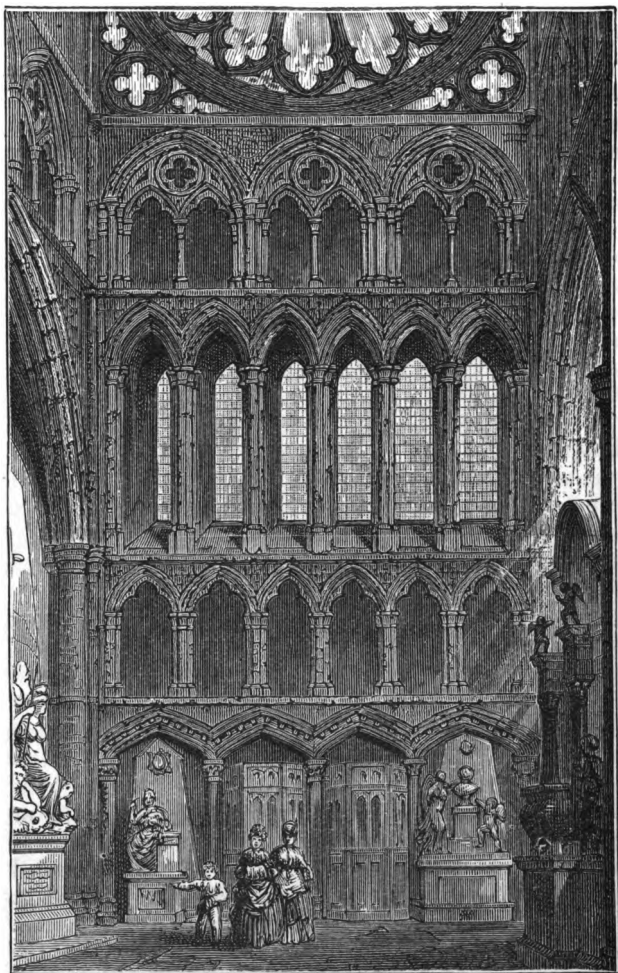
Norman work is marked by the prevalence of round arches without any moulding. The ground-plan of the building was that of a cross; at the point of junction rose the tower, whilst the east end was often rounded into what is called an "apse." The two aisles were



NORMAN ARCHITECTURE FROM ROCHESTER CATHEDRAL.

marked off from the central nave by thick circular or square pillars; and whatever ornament was used was mostly reserved for the doorway, where arch circled above arch, rich with the most elaborate moulding. The walls were so thick that no buttresses were required. The cathedrals of Peterborough and Ely contain the best specimens of Norman work.

**8. Early English Architecture.**—About the reign



**EARLY ENGLISH ARCHITECTURE : TRANSEPT IN WESTMINSTER ABBEY.**

of Henry II. a new style began to come into fashion. The arch now lost its old semi-circular form, and was pointed; gradually a fresh style of ornamentation was introduced, which became richer and richer as the years rolled on. The sculpture became far finer and truer to nature; the human figure and foliage were in constant use. The heavy columns of the Norman era changed to long slender shafts clustering round a central pillar. The windows became narrow and lancet-shaped, often arranged in groups of three. Marble was freely used. The thirteenth century was the greatest age of English architecture. It saw the building of Lincoln and Salisbury Cathedrals and of the great Yorkshire abbeys.

9. **A Norman Hall.**—In *secular buildings* the hall was the chief feature of a Norman house; round it were gathered the bowers or sleeping chambers, and underneath it ran the cellars. The floors were strewn with rushes, and it was considered a mark of great luxury to have these fresh each day. At the upper end, one step higher than the general level, was the dais, or high seat for the lord and his family; down the sides of the rooms ran the rough tables on their wooden trestles, leaving the middle of the hall free for the great fireplace, where billets of wood were placed on a circular stand of stone. As time went on the fireplace was removed to the side of the room, and chimneys were made through which the smoke could escape. But this did not become general till much later. Opposite the dais was a gallery for the minstrels; and on the huge rafters which spanned the ceiling the baron's hawks and falcons perched, just as his dogs lay about over the floor below. The tapestry became richer and richer, especially on the dais where the master sat, and where the state chair showed all the delicacy of carving which the times had reached.

10. **Meals.**—The principal meal of the day was taken at *ten*, and supper was over at five in the evening. Salt meat was used almost entirely during the winter months ; and as the autumn drew to a close, immense quantities of cattle were killed and preserved for use during the long series of weeks in which fresh grass would be rare. Towards the close of our period the Crusades had introduced the use of spice and sugar, which last now began to take the place of honey. Ale

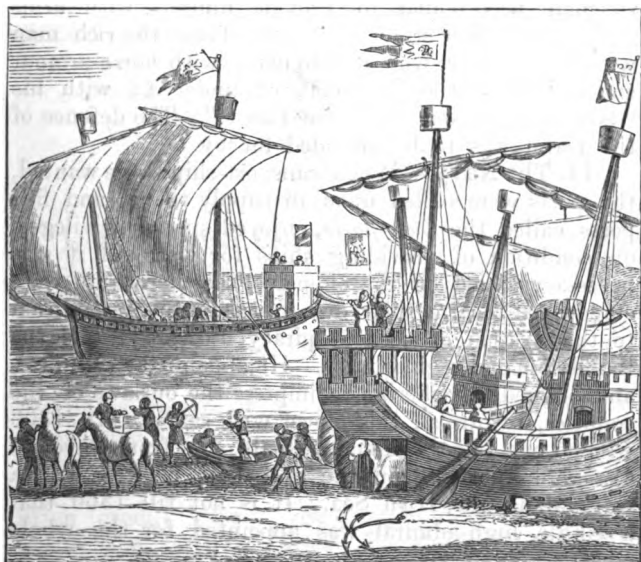


BATTLE SCENE, THIRTEENTH CENTURY. (From the Harleian MS.)

was much drunk, though the use of hops to give it a bitter flavour was not yet known. Wine was imported from Gascony ; but some of our own counties grew grapes, and manufactured wine even for the king's table.

11. **The English Army.**—The army was based upon universal compulsory military service. Mercenary troops were employed at times, and paid by the king out of *scutage*, *tallages*—i.e., levies upon towns in the royal demesne, or taxes authorised by Parliament. Under Edward I. the use of mercenary troops was discontinued, and Edward relied upon his own country to supply him with soldiers for his wars. It was, however, only part of the national force which was

used at any one time. When war broke out, commissioners were appointed to raise a certain number of men, varying from 200 to over 1,000 from each county. Along the coast, each county's array was under a knight-constable, having under him officers for each



SHIPS OF THE THIRTEENTH CENTURY.

group of 100 ; these groups, again, were subdivided into twenties. These forces consisted of infantry and archers. The common soldier received 2d. a day.

12. **The Cavalry.**—All persons possessed of a certain wealth—of whatever over-lord they held their lands—were obliged by Edward I. to receive knighthood and incur its duties, and thus he could muster all the important proprietors of the realm under his banners

as fully-armed warriors, to serve as cavalry. The specified time of service was still forty days.

13. **The Infantry.**—For defensive wars within the Island—as those against the Welsh or Scotch—Edward carried out the plan of his great-grandfather. Every freeman was bound to provide himself with arms according to his state in society—from the rich man with £15 a year, who was to come with horse-armour and sword, to the poor man of under £2 with his “bow and arrows out of the forest.” The defence of the realm was to be provided for by all.

14. **The Navy.**—When transport-ships were wanted, the ports were called upon to supply them; and five ports, called the *Cinq-ports*, enjoyed special privileges, on condition of providing ships for war. If it was necessary to act on the offensive, the merchants were empowered to arm their own vessels. But in addition to this system of licensed piracy, Edward I. laid the foundation of a regular navy. He appointed an admiral, and ordered the sheriffs to impress the outlaws of the counties, to furnish this officer with sailors. In 1306, we find one officer commanding all ports from Dover to Cornwall, another from the Thames to Berwick, and a third along the Irish Sea. It is not till 1360 that a single high-admiral was appointed for the whole realm.



## Part II.

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### INTRODUCTION.

1. **The Roman Conquest.**—We now enter upon the History of England from the assembly of the first complete Parliament in the year 1295. Let us run over the chief events of the past that we may better understand the story of the years to come. The first people who lived in England, of whom anything certain is known, were a Celtic race called Britons. They were not more civilised than the savage races of Africa are at the present day; they worshipped rudely-made idols, and their customs were wild and often cruel. Many years ago—about sixty years before the birth of Jesus Christ—these men had to resist an invasion of the Romans, who were then the most powerful nation of the world, under Julius Cæsar, who was their greatest general. The Britons fought bravely, but were completely overmatched, and in course of time this island in which we live became a part of the great Roman Empire. After more than three hundred years the Roman soldiers were withdrawn from England to fight against the enemies of their own country, and the Britons, who had grown civilised, and had become Christians under



Roman rule, were left to defend themselves as best they could against the barbarians around them.

**2. The English Conquest.**—They soon had to resist attacks from all quarters, but the most dangerous of the invaders were the Angles, the Saxons, and the Jutes, who came from Germany. These became known as the English, and were the forefathers of most English men and women. The Britons lived on only in the west, and the Welsh and Cornish men of the present day are their descendants.

**3. The English United.**—The English warriors entered into the lands of the Britons, and the country became divided into a number of small kingdoms, generally at war with one another, unless a king became so renowned that his neighbours were afraid to attack him. At first the kings of Kent were very powerful, and it was in the reign of one of them, named Ethelbert, that a good priest, called Augustine, came from Rome and taught him and his subjects that it was wicked to worship idols, and that they must turn to the true God; and, in course of time, the doctrines of Christianity were preached throughout the land, and the English were heathens no longer. But the rulers of Kent soon ceased to be mighty, and the great kingdoms of Mercia and Northumbria arose in turn in the middle and the north of England, until at last the people of Wessex in the south-west became stronger than those around them, and their king, Egbert, became lord of all the other English kings.

**4. The Danish Conquest.**—But the power of Wessex was assailed by the savage Danes, who sailed across the northern seas and ravaged the country. The English leaders—even King Alfred, the best and bravest of them—could not drive them out, so they settled down in the north and east of England. They became Christians and their greatest leader, Canute,

was chosen to be king of England; but, on the death of his sons, the old family of the Wessex kings was restored. Only one of them, however, the pious Edward, reigned, and on his death, without children, the Wise Men of England chose Harold, the most powerful noble among them, to succeed him on the throne.

**5. The Norman Conquest.**—Now William, called the Conqueror, Duke of Normandy, had for several years coveted England, and when he heard that Harold was king, he crossed the Channel, and defeated and slew him at the battle of Hastings. So the Norman nobles became masters of the English, and in the days of the Conqueror, and of William the Red, his son, they treated their subjects with great cruelty. Henry I., third of the Norman kings, ruled justly and well, but under his successor, Stephen, the country suffered miseries such as we can hardly conceive nowadays, from the civil war which lasted throughout his reign.

**6. The Plantagenet Monarchy.**—Henry Plantagenet, Count of Anjou, succeeded Stephen. Henry was a very powerful king; he ruled over the greater part of France, as well as over England and Wales; he conquered the wild country of Ireland, and made his name to be feared throughout Europe. But though busily occupied abroad, he was not forgetful of his subjects at home; the over-great power of the clergy was limited, and he tried to unite the Normans and English into one people, by making good laws which were binding on all men alike. His rebellious son and successor, Richard, called the Lion-heart, spent nearly all his time in foreign lands, his great object being to deliver the Holy Land from the Saracens, who believed in the religion taught by Mahomet. Then followed the reign of John. Through his misrule the nobles lost

their possessions in France, and thus became English, instead of half English and half French.

**7. Rise of Constitutional Government.**—Besides, John's tyranny forced these nobles to join with the Church against the king, and to compel him to sign the Great Charter—that grand safeguard of the rights and privileges of all classes of Englishmen. The rich Norman landlord also at this time began to adopt the language of the English, and no longer spoke in French—a tongue which his English tenants and labourers could barely understand. The struggle thus begun in the reign of John was continued in that of his son, Henry III. Simon De Montfort, the leader of the patriotic party, laid down his life for the cause, dying before the object of his hopes—namely, the just government of the people—was realised. It was fulfilled in the days of Edward I. He was the friend of his people. He spent much labour in securing the happiness of the nation by the enactment of just laws; he reorganised the national army; he subdued the turbulent Welsh, and made his power to be felt in Scotland; and finally, in 1295, he summoned the first true English Parliament—the first assembly, that is, in which the representatives of the Lords, Commons, and Clergy met together for the purpose of devising laws for the benefit of the nation, and of declaring each for their own class what taxes they would pay to the king. We shall now see how the English nation gradually learnt to rule itself in every department of the Government through this Parliament, and to pass step by step and class by class from subjugation into liberty.



PENNY OF EDWARD I.

PENNY OF EDWARD II.

## CHAPTER I.

### RESULTS OF THE FRENCH WARS.

1. The later history of England dates from the reign of Edward I. His legislation mapped out the constitution, and his foreign policy decided the course of events for many years. He was determined to be supreme within Great Britain. Wales he finally subdued. Scotland had bowed to his supremacy, and the king, John Balliol, whom he had set upon its throne, had sworn allegiance to him. There is little doubt that, if left to itself, the union of England with Scotland would have been maintained.

2. **Foreign Relations.**—England, however, was still impeded by the continental relations of her kings. They had lost Normandy and Anjou, but they still possessed the Duchy of Guienne in the south-west of France, and out of this there sprang an hereditary war between France and England, which led to the severance of Scotland again from us for three hundred years, and which, as we shall see, delayed for awhile the development of good government in England.

3. **Revolt of Scotland.**—Philip, King of France, had unjustly taken possession of Guienne (1294). Edward thereupon declared war; and the Welsh and Scotch at once seized the opportunity to revolt. The

Welsh were soon subdued. Edward then marched against Balliol, and met him at *Dunbar*, where the Scots were overthrown with great loss by the English commander, the Earl of Warenne. Ed-

ward marched on to Perth, where Balliol submitted, and was sent to the Tower of London. A Parliament was held at Berwick, and there the Scots acknowledged Edward as their king.

**4. Resistance of the Clergy.** — But Edward had spent in these campaigns the supplies granted by the Parliament to win back Guienne; and the strain of the French war entangled the hitherto successful king in constantly increasing difficulties. The English clergy, who had been driven to desperation by the



A BISHOP, FOURTEENTH CENTURY.

heavy taxes they had recently paid, refused, through Archbishop Winchelsea, to pay any more, relying on a message from the new Pope, Boniface VIII., which forbade the clergy to pay taxes to their king from the revenues of the Church. Edward, who was a man of

high spirit, promptly outlawed the clergy, so that they could get no rents, and Church property was seized.

5. **Resistance of the Baronage.**—Their leaders, however, held out, and were glad to find that, in 1297, many of the nobles, headed by two great ministers, the Earls of Norfolk and Hereford, refused to serve in the French war. Edward in despair seized the wool of the merchants to sell at his own price; and though Winchelsea, who was a very just man, persuaded the clergy to help the king—although from fear of Pope Boniface he did not tell them to act thus in so many words—the earls, at a meeting of the army in London, still refused to do their duty. Edward therefore dismissed them from their offices, and sailed for Flanders without them.

6. **Confirmation of the Charters** (1297).—On the next day they appeared in arms, and compelled Prince Edward, his son, to give his consent to an important law, called the Confirmation of the Charters, because it was a reissue of Magna Charta. It also provided that the king would never resort to the illegal taxes which he had of late levied, and that the unjust tax on wool, or any similar tax, should never be taken without the consent of the Commons of the realm.

7. **Revolt of Wallace** (1297).—Meanwhile fresh disturbances had broken out in Scotland, where Sir William Wallace had appeared at the head of a band of lawless men, and was ravaging the country with great cruelty. The Earl of Warrene, who was old and incompetent, met him at Cambuskenneth, near Stirling, and the rashness of the English officers involved him in a crushing defeat. Wallace then invaded England, and laid waste the country as far as Carlisle, showing mercy to none. He assumed the title of Guardian of Scotland, a piece of vanity by which he offended the great nobles.

8. **Peace with France** (1298).—At the end of the year Edward returned from Flanders, having accomplished nothing, owing to the lukewarmness of his allies; and two years later, through the mediation of the Pope, a treaty was made at Chartres, by which Edward received Guienne back again, and Philip renounced his alliance with Scotland. Two marriages were also arranged—one between Edward and Margaret, Philip's sister, and the other between Edward, Prince of Wales, and Isabella, the French king's daughter, a betrothal that was to work much harm.

9. **Fall of Wallace**.—Edward then marched against Wallace, who retired swiftly before him, but was caught at Falkirk and his army destroyed. For several years he wandered about the mountains until, in 1305, he was betrayed into the hands of the English, and put to death as a robber and outlaw.

10. **New Revolt**.—Sir John Comyn was left as Regent of Scotland, but he soon deserted the English cause, and appeared in arms, inflicting a considerable reverse on John Segrave, Governor of Scotland, outside the walls of Edinburgh, in 1303. Meanwhile Edward much wished to punish his rebellious subjects, but was prevented by Pope Boniface, who commanded him to desist from attacking Scotland, on the ground that it belonged to the Church of Rome; and as he was then mediator between England and France, Edward did not dare to resist him. However, the French troubles being over, Edward marched once more into Scotland. Comyn laid down his arms, and all the castles were placed in English hands.

11. **Revolt of Bruce** (1305).—Hardly had the English returned home, when a fresh rebellion broke out under Robert Bruce. He was a grandson of David, Earl of Huntingdon. Aroused from the indolence that had hitherto hung over him, he suddenly took up

arms and treacherously murdered Comyn—who had a better claim to the crown than his own, and who, moreover, was now a friend of the English—in the church of Dumfries. Bruce then went to Scone, where he was crowned King of Scotland. Bruce was at first defeated by the Earl of Pembroke, near Perth, and those of his followers who were captured were hanged, including his brother Nigel. But fortune soon smiled on him again. He defeated Pembroke, and then Gilbert, Earl of Gloucester, the king's son-in-law.

12. **Death of Edward I.** (1307).—The aged king advanced against him with his troops, but died near Carlisle. Disappointments clouded his later years, but he was one of the noblest of our kings—a great law-giver and great warrior; a man who, though stern and inflexible, was ever true to his word.

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## CHAPTER II.

### THE BARONAGE AND THE COURT.

1. **Edward II. and Gaveston.**—The reign of Edward II. (1307—1327) presented a miserable contrast to that of his father. He was a very weak man, influenced by unprincipled favourites, and his wife was a French princess who proved to be a very wicked woman. The barons' jealousy of the assumptions of the court, which Edward I. could scarcely hold in check, increased more and more, and the king's folly soon brought about civil war. He abandoned Scotland, leaving the Earl of Pembroke there as lieutenant; and next, he recalled his friend Piers Gaveston, a handsome, vain young Gascon, whom his father had banished from the realm. Gaveston was made Earl of Cornwall. The barons, however, demanded his



dismissal. Then Edward made him Lord-Deputy of Ireland, but in the following year he came back to England.

2. **Discontent of the Baronage.**—The barons became very angry, especially as Edward at the same time was in close alliance with Philip IV., his father-



EDWARD II., FROM HIS GREAT SEAL.

in-law, and with the Pope, whom Philip had got completely into his power, and who now left Rome and lived under French control at Avignon (1309—1376). The barons resolved to take the law into their own hands; and having first compelled Edward to check his extravagances and refrain from unlawful taxation, they went on to place government in the hands of twenty-one men, called the Lords Ordainers, who were to produce

*Ordinances* of reform. The leaders of the opposition to the royal favourites were Archbishop Winchelsea and Thomas, the great Earl of Lancaster, a first-cousin of the king, who had also married his sister, and possessed enormous property. Edward in vain attempted to distract attention from home affairs by an unsuccessful invasion of Scotland, but he was compelled to submit to the Ordinances. By these he was compelled to give up all new taxes, and to dismiss his evil companions, among them Piers Gaveston, who fled to Flanders (1311).

3. **Civil War.**—In the autumn Gaveston returned, and in conjunction with him Edward took up arms to overthrow the Lords Ordainers; but Lancaster was soon at their heels. Gaveston was besieged in Scarborough, and had to surrender. He then fell into the hands of the Earl of Warwick who hated him, and was put to death. Edward was very angry, but had no course but to submit, and pardon his rebellious subjects.

4. **Expulsion from Scotland** (1314).—Edward and the Earl of Pembroke, in 1314, again invaded Scotland, where Stirling was being besieged by Bruce, but it ended in the terrible defeat of the English at the battle of *Bannockburn*. Four years later Bruce captured Berwick, and himself invaded England (1318). The war continued for five years longer, but Edward received no support from the irritated barons, and was at last compelled to make a truce with Bruce, and recognise him to be King of Scotland (1323).

5. **Lancaster and the Despensers.**—The utter failure of Edward in Scotland caused Lancaster to become more powerful than ever. He became Edward's chief minister, but soon found that his purely aristocratic policy was checked by the Despensers, a family which had fought for Simon de Montfort, and now were the new favourites in the place of Gaveston. Hugh

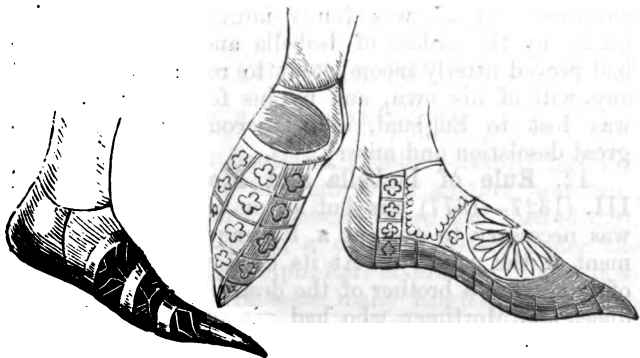
Despenser claimed some property in Wales in the right of his wife, and thus aroused the indignation of the barons. They took up arms, Lancaster and Hereford at their head, and marching on London, extorted from the king the banishment of the hated favourites (1321). The baronial party, headed by their beloved Thomas of Lancaster, was now completely triumphant.

6. **Fall of Lancaster** (1322).—Suddenly an insult to his queen, Isabella, aroused the indolent king from his habitual sluggishness. The gates of the castle of Leeds were shut in her face by the governor. Edward collected a considerable army, recalled the Despensers, and marched against the nobles of the Welsh marches, who gave in at once. Thomas of Lancaster, meanwhile, was collecting troops in Yorkshire, and asking Bruce for aid. But the royal forces were soon upon him, and he was crushed by Sir Andrew Harkclay at Boroughbridge. There the Earl of Hereford was slain, and Lancaster was taken prisoner and beheaded. For many years the common people worshipped him as a saint; but, in fact, he had only used his power for the benefit of himself and the baronage.

7. **The Despensers in Power**.—The Despensers were now in high favour, and the elder was made Earl of Winchester. The Ordinances by which the realm had been governed were revised, and it was decreed that all laws could henceforth be only made in Parliament with the assent of the Prelates, Earls, Barons, and Commons. Quiet, however, under a king so despicable was not of long continuance. The Commons would not grant the king any money, and the clergy, whose leader was the Bishop of Hereford, were very angry at the ease with which he submitted to the exactions of the Pope.

8. **Quarrel with France** (1324).—Added to this, Edward quarrelled with his wife's brother, Charles IV.,

who had ascended the French throne in 1322. Charles demanded that Edward should go in person to France, and there do him homage for the lands he held in that country, threatening, in case of refusal, to invade Guienne. Edward sent his wife, Isabella, the French king's sister, to conciliate him, and she arranged that Edward, Prince of Wales, should do homage in his father's stead.



SHOES WORN AT COURT OF EDWARD II.

**9. Conspiracy of Isabella.**—But the queen hated the Despensers and despised her husband. She entered into an intrigue with her lover, Mortimer, Earl of March, the leader of the western nobles in the late baronial rebellion, who had escaped from prison and joined her in France. They formed a plot to dethrone Edward, and kept the young Prince of Wales in their hands.

**10. Deposition of Edward II. (1327).**—All the great men of the land, including the king's brothers and the Archbishop of Canterbury, joined Isabella on her landing. Edward, who was quite powerless, fled

without striking a blow, and was captured in Wales. The elder Despenser was besieged in Bristol, taken prisoner, and, with his son, put to death. Then Parliament was summoned, and it was decided that Edward should be deposed, on the ground that he was unworthy to rule; and the miserable man owned the justice of his sentence.

11. **Murder of Edward II.**—The Prince of Wales was made king. Edward was imprisoned, and in the autumn of 1327 was foully murdered in Berkeley Castle by the orders of Isabella and Mortimer. He had proved utterly incompetent to rule: he never had any will of his own, and by his feebleness Scotland was lost to England, and the country was put to great desolation and misery.

12. **Rule of Isabella and Mortimer.**—Edward III. (1327—1377) was but a boy of fourteen, and it was necessary to appoint a Regency for the government of the country. At its head was Henry, Earl of Lancaster, a brother of the dead Thomas. But the queen and Mortimer, who had appropriated the estates of the Despensers, had their own way for a time, and the Lancastrian party became as hostile to them as they had been to Edward II. The evil success of an expedition conducted by the young king and Mortimer against Scotland, and the conclusion of a treaty by which the English finally abandoned Scotland, roused the barons again to arms; but Mortimer overcame them, and deprived Lancaster of half his estates. Finally, to secure himself, he executed the Earl of Kent, brother of the late king.

13. **Fall of Mortimer (1330).**—Edward, however, who was now eighteen, and had married Philippa of Hainault, was roused, by his uncle's death, to prove himself a man and a king. He seized Mortimer and the queen-mother at Nottingham; the former was speedily

executed as a traitor (1330), and the latter was sent to live in retirement in Castle Rising, in Norfolk, where, twenty-seven years later, she died. The whole nation welcomed the action of the young king, and the restlessness of the baronage was thenceforth diverted by the tremendous struggle with France into which Edward launched the English people.

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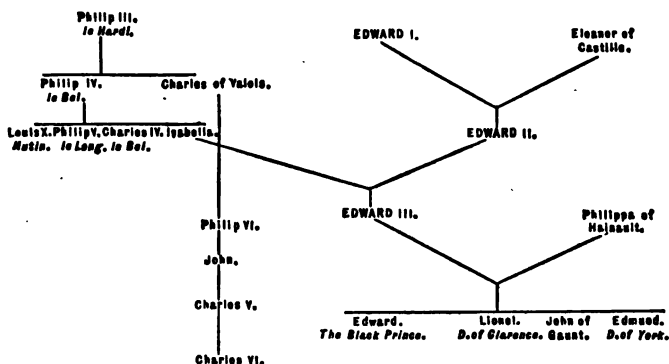
### CHAPTER III.

#### THE HUNDRED YEARS' WAR.

1. **War with Scotland (1333).**—Hardly had Edward begun really to reign when another war with Scotland broke out. Robert Bruce had died (1329), leaving his son David, a child of seven, under the guardianship of Randolph, Earl of Murray. Now it so happened that there were many English nobles who owned lands in Scotland which had been taken from them in the late war; these lands Robert Bruce had promised to restore, but had not done so. The weakness of Scotland gave them an opportunity, and, with Edward's permission, they invaded Scotland, taking as their nominal leader Edward, the son of John Balliol, the ex-King of Scotland, who revived his father's claim to the throne. Balliol sailed to Scotland, defeated the Earl of Mar, the new regent—for Murray was dead—at Dupplin Moor, and, with the help of an English army, was crowned King of Scotland (1332). But the Scotch nobles hated him, and he was driven out of the land, and David, who had been taken prisoner, was sent back to his subjects by Edward III.

2. **The French Crown.**—The chief interest of the remainder of the reign lies in the attempt of Edward

to become King of France. Charles IV. died in 1328, leaving no sons. By the custom of France women cannot reign, so Charles was succeeded by his first-cousin, Philip of Valois, who called himself Philip VI. Edward, on his side, though at first a friend of Philip, to whom he did homage for his French possessions, put in a claim to the throne, in right of his mother, Isabella, the sister of Charles IV. The French



EDWARD III.'S CLAIM TO THE FRENCH CROWN.

nobles decided against him, but Edward never relinquished his claim; and in 1337, angry at Philip's support of David of Scotland, he determined to act upon it, and prepared for the invasion of France.

**3. Flemish Campaigns (1338—1340).—**To supply himself with money, Edward had recourse to a tax on wool, and to forced loans, in spite of the hatred that such exactions always aroused. He entered into alliance with the German emperor and all the foes of France, while Philip won over Scotland to his side. Artevelt, the leader of the citizens of the Flemish towns, had

driven out Louis, Count of Flanders, who was connected by marriage with the French king. Flanders, therefore, and France were at enmity. So Edward made a treaty with the Flemings, granting them very favourable terms for trade, and landed at Antwerp with a large army. Thence he marched into France, but he could do little more, for his allies hung back, and Philip thought it unwise to risk a battle. Edward retired on Brussels, and now for the first time openly assumed the title of King of France.

**4. Battle of Sluys.**—In the year 1340 his fleet won the first of the great victories of England on the sea. To cut off the communications between England and Flanders, Philip had collected a large fleet manned by sailors from Normandy and the Italian republic of Genoa. The English ships—about two hundred—found them at Sluys, a Flemish port, and there inflicted a crushing defeat on the French, who had chained their ships together, so as to present an immovable mass. Edward then advanced against Tournai, not far from Calais, but he could not reduce the town, and was therefore compelled to make a truce for a time with Philip.

**5. Dismissal of the Ministers (1340).**—The angry king returned home, and proceeded to dismiss all his ministers, on the ground that they had not furnished him with supplies for the war. Chief among them was John Stratford, Archbishop of Canterbury, an honest man, who was very indignant, and wrote from Canterbury, whither he had fled, upbraiding the king for his illegal acts, and demanding to be heard by his equals in Parliament. When Parliament met, Stratford was refused admittance, but the peers insisted that the king had no power to exclude any peer from the House of Lords, and finally Edward was induced by his want of means to receive the archbishop into his council again. Edward also consented that Parliament should inquire



into the conduct of his ministers every year, and should receive accounts showing how the taxes were expended ; but this promise he afterwards declined to carry out.

**6. Campaign in Brittany (1342).**—The beginning of 1342 found Edward in an unpleasant position. All his allies had left him, including the half-hearted emperor ; the Scots drove the English into the great fortresses, many of which fell, and forced Edward to agree to a truce on unfavourable terms. Edward, therefore, for the present confined himself to stirring up strife in Brittany, where, as in so many countries at this time, there was a disputed succession. John III., Duke of Brittany, died, leaving a half-brother, John de Montfort, and a daughter, who married Charles of Blois, King Philip's nephew, as rival claimants. Charles was, of course, the French champion ; and Edward, equally as a matter of course, took up the cause of John, who, acting with great promptitude, got all the fortresses of Brittany into his hands, and then offered to do Edward homage as King of France for the duchy of Brittany. But soon the French troops under John, the French king's eldest son, marched against De Montfort, and brought him prisoner to Paris. His heroic wife Jane, however, held out bravely all the winter in the fortress of Hennebonne, until Sir Walter Manney relieved her. The campaign of the year was indecisive, and was followed by a truce (1343). The matter was referred to the Pope, Clement VI., but with no result, Edward insisting that at least he should be recognised as absolute sovereign of Guienne.

**7. The Battle of Cressy (1346).**—War was renewed in 1346, and this time a great battle was fought. The Earl of Derby, son of Henry of Lancaster, was hard pressed in Guienne, and Edward, to draw the French from him, made a descent with 30,000 men

on the coast of Normandy, and burnt the town of Caen. He then turned eastward, with the idea of getting to Calais, but found that all the bridges on the river Seine had been broken, so that he could not cross. He advanced up the river to the very walls of Paris, before he could outwit Philip and cross the river. He then made for Calais again, and crossed the river Somme close to the sea, through the cowardice of the French posted there. But King Philip was coming hard after him with a huge army, which was daily joined by fresh allies from Germany, and at Cressy they met. The great battle was fought on August 26th. The story of that glorious day may be briefly told—the bow-strings of the Genoese archers were wet, so that they could not shoot; the French knights rode over them to get at their enemy on the hills, but were shot down by the unerring arrows of the English; young Edward, the Black Prince, as he was called, won his spurs for his valour; and at last the French host rolled back. Edward went on to Calais, which he besieged at his leisure.



GENOESE BOWMAN.

8. **Battle of Neville's Cross** (1346).—There he received the news that the Scots had invaded England under David, but had fallen unawares upon the forces of the great northern nobles, the Percys and Nevilles, with whom was Queen Philippa, at Neville's Cross, and had been defeated; King David, who fought sturdily and well, being taken prisoner.

9. **The Siege of Calais**.—Thus relieved from anxiety at home, Edward sat down to the siege of Calais, while another army, under the Earl of Derby, gradually recovered Guienne and Poitou. The siege is remarkable, both for the valour of the governor, John de Vienne, and his garrison, who held out for a whole year, and for the fact that cannon were first employed in the operations. Philip of France marched to relieve the town, and challenged Edward to come out and fight him; and Edward appointed the time and place, but soon afterwards Philip retreated. The next day the garrison, who were reduced to starvation, offered to surrender; and Edward agreed to spare their lives if six citizens were given up to his vengeance. Eustace St. Pierre and his comrades offered themselves, but the stern king was induced to spare them at the intercession of Queen Philippa. Edward repeopled the town with Englishmen, and thus had a secure landing-place in France, which remained in English hands until the reign of Mary.

10. **The Black Death** (1348).—In the period of peace which followed, a new enemy appeared in the shape of a pestilence, of Eastern origin, called the Black Death, which swept across Europe, and made its appearance in England in 1349. It is thought that at least a third of the people perished. The result was that workmen became very scarce, and the labourers in consequence demanded more wages. Parliament attempted to put them down by the *Statute of*

*Labourers*, by which men were compelled to work for a certain rate of payment. Another and better law was the *Statute of Treasons*, passed to protect the life of the king, and to prevent rebellions against him, and to protect his officers when performing their duty.



ARMOUR OF EDWARD III.  
(From Grose's "*Military Antiquities*.")

**11. French War Renewed (1355).—**Meanwhile the Pope, who continued to live at Avignon, under the protection of the French king, had been negotiating a peace. Edward still insisted upon the sovereignty of Guienne as the price of peace, and as the French would not yield, Edward once more took up arms. Philip VI.

had died, and was succeeded by his weak son John, called the Good. Edward invaded the north, while his son, the gallant Black Prince, landed at Bordeaux in the south. The king's campaign was short, for he was recalled by a fresh invasion from Scotland; but his son marched across the south-west of France, burning and destroying everywhere. War in those days was cruel indeed.

**12. The Battle of Poitiers (1356).**—Prince Edward advanced, ravaging and destroying, from Bordeaux as far north as the river Loire, which flows across the centre of France; but hearing that the French army were near, he began to retreat. The French, however, cut him off at Poitiers, and, as his position was desperate, he turned to bay. Edward posted his troops on the high ground, at the end of a narrow lane. The heavy-armed Frenchmen dashed up, and were shot down by the stout English archers from the front, and from the hedges on either side. A final charge from Edward's horsemen utterly overthrew them. The French king, John, was taken prisoner, and sent to London in honourable captivity.

**13. Charles the Dauphin.**—The state of France was now terrible. The country people were starving, bands of hired soldiers plundered on all sides, and the peasantry rose in despair. Charles the Dauphin (or eldest son of the king) undertook the government during his father's captivity. But his cousin, Charles the Bad, King of Navarre, himself aimed at the French crown; and the Parisian citizens, under Stephen Marcel, Provost of Paris, took up arms, and murdered the counsellors of Charles the Dauphin before his eyes. They soon found, however, that they had a clever man to deal with. The Dauphin Charles, the Wise, as he was called, played off party against party with much cunning and skill, until he was rid of Marcel—who was murdered

in a street riot—and Charles the Bad, of Navarre, came to terms. The Dauphin acted with equal decision against the English. He did not risk another battle, but shut his forces up in the great castles, allowing the English to burn and plunder as they would, until want of food compelled them to retire.

**14. Peace of Bretigny (1360).**—So successful were the plans of the wise prince, that in 1360 the English king was glad to sign a peace at Bretigny, by which he surrendered his claim to the French crown and also to the ancient hereditary provinces of the Plantagenets in Northern France, on condition that he should have a huge district on the south and west, and the ports of Calais and Guisnes in the north. Part of King John's ransom was collected with much difficulty, and the unfortunate king returned to Paris again; but as the remainder of the money could not be collected, he honourably went back to London, where he died.

**15. War in Castile (1367).**—The Black Prince reigned at Bordeaux over these French territories. Thither as a suppliant came Peter the Cruel, King of Castile, in Spain, who for his many murders and wickednesses had been driven from the throne by his half-brother Henry. The prince foolishly promised to help him in spite of his crimes, and Henry in turn obtained assistance from the French under their bravest general, Du Guesclin. The two armies met at *Navarrette*, in 1367, where the English gained a glorious victory, though their cause was bad. Edward returned in broken health to France.

**16. French War Renewed (1369).**—Before long the French nobles, who hated the English rule—or indeed any rule—refused to pay taxes, and called Charles the Wise, now king, to their aid. His interference aroused both nations to renew the war. Edward assumed once more the title of “King of France,”

which thenceforward was borne by the English kings. But the Black Prince had neither men nor money, and was very ill indeed. His armies fell back on all sides, and though he made a great effort in 1371, and cruelly massacred the helpless citizens of Limoges, he returned soon afterwards to England to die. Disaster now followed disaster. Henry of Castile, who had slain his half-brother Peter, became an active ally of France, and defeated the English in a great sea-fight off *Rockelle*; and the English generals in the south of France, one of whom was John of Lancaster, Prince Edward's younger brother, could by no means hold their own. In 1374 the war had died out, and the Pope, Gregory XI., persuaded the weary nations to a truce. And what had England gained? She had lost many brave soldiers, she had become very poor, and she had failed to win the lands for which she fought. Calais in the north, and Bordeaux, and some lands near in the south-west of France, were all that remained to her, except the glory of the victories of Cressy and Poitiers.

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## CHAPTER IV.

### THE RIVALRIES OF THE ROYAL PRINCES.

**1. Disorder of the Government.**—So the first part of the long war with France came to an end, leaving much misery behind it. The Black Prince returned, as we have seen, to England, and was able to do good work in the brief space of years that remained for him before he died. He found the government in a very disordered state. Edward III. had grown old before his time, and had fallen under the influence of a clever but unscrupulous woman called Alice Perrers, who seized

upon the public money, and is said to have sat on the bench with the judges to interfere with trials.

2. **John of Gaunt.**—John of Gaunt, or Ghent, Duke of Lancaster, the king's third son, became through her influence the leader of the aristocratic party. They wished to increase their own power, and were also strongly opposed to the clergy, of whom William of Wyckeham, Bishop of Winchester, was the greatest and best. John of Gaunt was a selfish man. He reminds us a little of Thomas of Lancaster, whose heiress he had wedded, and to whose earldom he had succeeded.

3. **The Good Parliament.**—The Prince of Wales, on the other hand, became leader of the popular party, and protested strongly against the heaviness of the taxes with which the poor were ground down. He and his followers were able to do much at the Parliament of 1376—"the Good Parliament," as it was called. They caused the king's evil ministers to be tried and imprisoned, and made the king send away Alice Perrers.

4. **Death of the Black Prince (1376).**—Their good work was cut short by the death of the Black Prince, who should be remembered not only as the hero of Poitiers, but as the man who loved the English people. Lancaster now had everything his own way. The king's evil ministers were let out of prison, and Alice Perrers was recalled. And then John of Gaunt, seeing that the influence of William of Wyckeham was as strong as ever, formed a friendship with the famous John Wyclif, because he was a reformer who assailed what was evil within the Church.

5. **John Wyclif.**—Wyclif condemned the evil lives and misused wealth of the monks. He studied the Scriptures for himself, and sent out his disciples—the poor priests, or *Lollards*—to persuade the people to



a simpler and purer worship than that of Rome. So when Wyclif was summoned to appear before the Bishop of London, John stood forward as his defender. But if Wyclif was loved in the country, he was hated in London, and the mob breaking in brought the trial



JOHN WYCLIF (B. 1324 ; D. 1384.)

to an end, and then burned John of Gaunt's palace to the ground. In the midst of these wild tumults old King Edward died, and his little grandson, Richard II., the son of the Black Prince, became king.

6. **Richard II.** (1377—1399).—On account of Richard's tender years, it was necessary to make some provision for the government. So a council of regency

was formed, with John of Gaunt at its head ; but the Commons mistrusted him still, and insisted on having the taxes paid over to two treasurers in whom they could place confidence.

**7. Wat Tyler (1381).**—Money was urgently wanted for the French and Scotch wars, which still continued ; so every man, woman, and child in England, whether rich or poor, was called on to pay a poll-tax. This, and the bad laws by which they were governed, was more than the unhappy labourers could bear. They rose in rebellion under Wat Tyler, and with them went John Ball, one of Wyclif's poor priests. The peasants marched on London. The king met them outside the city, and heard their demands, which included the abolition of their slavish condition and a free pardon. This was promised them, but next day they met the king again, and the Lord Mayor struck Wat Tyler down. The furious crowd would have avenged the death of their leader, had not young Richard bravely declared that *he* would be their leader, and made them follow him until they came to Islington, where his army was. There they submitted, and were allowed to disperse to their homes. Parliament, however, would not make good the king's promise, and caused many of the insurgents to be put to death ; but the people had shown their power, and fifty years after this rebellion there was no sort of slavery in England.

**8. Retirement of John of Gaunt.**—Meanwhile Lancaster continued to exercise great authority, and plotted to become king himself. Richard, who was now eighteen, grew mistrustful of him ; and at length John, opposed on all sides, was glad to go to Spain, where he claimed the throne of Castile, on the ground of his marriage with a daughter of Peter the Cruel. He had long deserted Wyclif, and that great reformer had retired to his country parsonage.

9. **Duke of Gloucester.**—His brother, Thomas, Duke of Gloucester, succeeded to John's power, and also to his ambitious designs. Now Richard had fallen into the evil custom of giving great power to his personal friends, like Edward II. before him. For instance, De Vere was made ruler of Ireland; and another, Michael de la Pole, who seems to have been an honest man, was made Earl of Suffolk. So Gloucester, in opposition, collected a party of nobles, who proclaimed that the king's ministers were evil and must be sent away, and that the war with France ought to be vigorously renewed. The king was obliged to give way, and to dismiss the Earl of Suffolk, and soon afterwards the government was taken, as it had been in the days of Edward II., from the king, and placed in the hands of Gloucester and four of his friends, who called themselves the Lords Appellant. Richard tried to resist them, but they were forewarned in time, and the loyal forces under De Vere had to fly. Then followed a period of much cruelty. The king's friends were caught one by one, and put to death by the orders of the Parliament, which gained the title of "wonderful" or "merciless." And so Gloucester had entire control over the affairs of England.

10. **Personal Rule of Richard.**—Suddenly, in 1389, Richard roused himself. The followers of Gloucester were dismissed, as the king declared he had no longer need of them, and with the advice of the good William of Wyckeham, he chose wise counsellors, and for a time governed well. Though waiting only for a chance of vengeance, he carefully concealed his real intentions. Meanwhile he passed several good laws, one of which made all appointments by the Pope of clergy to livings in England unlawful; and another, the important *Statute of Præmunire* (1393), subjected any one who introduced messages from Rome into England,

without the king's consent, to imprisonment and the loss of his property. In 1394 Richard went to Ireland, and received the homage of the chief princes there.



RICHARD II. (B. 1366 ; D. 1400.)

*(From the Portrait in the Jerusalem Chamber.)*

After his return he married the Princess Isabella, daughter of the French king, and concluded a permanent truce with France.

11. **Misgovernment.**—Richard's successes in Ire-

land and his marriage made him extravagant and presumptuous. He now designed to rule absolutely. He tyrannised over Parliament, and asserted that the king was the sole lawgiver, and that the life and property of every subject were at his disposal. In 1397 he struck the blow at his enemies which he had been meditating so long. Two of the Lords Appellant were executed, and Gloucester died at Calais, it was thought by foul means. The two others, the Duke of Norfolk and Henry, Duke of Hereford, the son of old John of Gaunt, and a great favourite with the people, were, to outward appearance, pardoned; but they began to mistrust each other, and Richard seized the opportunity of a quarrel between them to send both into banishment (1398).

12. **Deposition of Richard II.** (1399).—Upon the death of John of Gaunt, Richard unjustly seized on his estates. So while Richard was absent in Ireland, Henry returned to England, to recover, as he said, his lost inheritance. The people, who were tired of the king, welcomed the return of their old favourite, the heir of the House which, under Thomas of Lancaster, had been the champion of the country against the court. Richard hurried against Henry from Ireland, but could find no one to support him, and was taken prisoner. Then Henry disclosed his plans, his cousin was compelled to resign the crown, and he put forth his claim to the throne. It was accepted by Parliament, and thus Henry IV. became king.

## CHAPTER V.

## THE LANCASTRIAN REVOLUTION.

1. **Results of the Revolution.**—The Revolution of 1399 was an important turning-point in English history. Parliament, on behalf of the nation, thus acted in accordance with the old right to depose a bad king. But though kings had been deposed before, never since the Normans established the right of *primogeniture*—the succession of the eldest son—had the throne been filled by any other than the rightful heir. Now Henry of Lancaster was under no circumstances the rightful heir. Failing Richard, the heir of Edward III. was the Earl of March (grandson of his second son, Lionel, Duke of Clarence), so that thenceforward various princes of the Royal House thought they had an equal right to the throne, and each intrigued to obtain the assent of Parliament and the nation to their own succession.

2. **Henry IV. (1399—1413).**—The duties of governing in dangerous times entirely changed the character of Henry. He had been a popular and open-handed prince, but he became a cautious, reserved, and stern king. For he had but few friends; the only nobles on whom he could depend were the great northern lords, the Percys and the Nevilles. His first difficulty was with the earls who had been on Richard's side when he overthrew his uncle Gloucester; they did not like the new state of affairs, and wished to restore the deposed king. They could, however, do very little; most of them were killed by the country people, who were still true to their old favourite. Shortly afterwards, Richard, who was in prison at Pontefract, died. His body was brought to London, in order to disprove the

story that he had been murdered; but this was nevertheless believed, and to this day it is unknown whether Richard was foully slain or no. Many said that the corpse was not that of Richard, and they believed that he was still alive.

**3. Wars in Scotland and Wales.**—The Scotch and the Welsh seized the opportunity to take up arms. An expedition to Scotland resulted, as usual, in the active Scots avoiding the English, and so escaping a battle, until want of food forced their enemies to return. From the Welsh mountains came Owen Glendower, a descendant from Llewellyn, who had fought so valiantly against Edward I., and he defeated the nobles on the Welsh border. Henry was unsuccessful against him, and the English soldiers believed that the storms that came down upon them from the wild hills were raised by Glendower, who was reported to be a magician.

**4. The Rebellion of the Percys (1403).**—Soon after this the Percys, Henry's former friends, joined the Welsh rebellion. They were very quick-tempered nobles—one of them, therefrom, was called Hotspur—and they had cause to bear a grudge against King Henry. For the Percys had defeated the Scots and taken several prisoners, from whom they expected to get much ransom, but Henry claimed the money; and they were angry because the king, with additional injustice, refused in turn to ransom one of Glendower's prisoners, who was Hotspur's brother-in-law. And so they suddenly rose to join Glendower, spreading reports that Richard was alive; but Henry was too quick for them, and caught them at Shrewsbury, where Hotspur fell. The Earl of Northumberland, his father, who had not yet openly joined the rebellion, was pardoned. Glendower, however, was unsubdued, and continued the struggle, with some help from France, until the end of the reign. Soon afterwards, Edmund Mortimer, Earl of March, who was the

real heir to the throne, and had been imprisoned for his share in the late rebellion, made his escape. He was soon recaptured. Nevertheless, Henry was very uneasy, and in 1406 new plots sprang up in the north, in which the Earl of Northumberland and Richard Scroop, Archbishop of York, took part. But the watchful king detected their treachery; Scroop was beheaded, and Northumberland fled to Wales.

**5. Henry Established (1408).**—From this time fortune favoured Henry. The young Prince James of Scotland, on his way to France, fell into Henry's hands, who kept him prisoner, knowing well that thus he would keep the prince's friends in Scotland quiet. The Duke of Orleans also, his chief enemy in France, was murdered during the civil wars which were agitating that country; lastly, the Duke of Northumberland, rebelling once more, was killed in battle. Henry's position as King of England was now secure for him, and on the whole he ruled well, though his health was very bad.

**6. Foreign Alliances.**—Henry strengthened himself by marrying his daughters and sisters to the great rulers of Europe. In France, by siding first with one party and then with another, he made himself feared, and thus his son, the Duke of Clarence, recovered many lands in the south. In England his rule was severe; the Commons, indeed, could do and say in Parliament pretty much what they pleased, but he persecuted the followers of Wyclif, causing some of them to be burnt to death. Men in those days seldom showed mercy to those whose religion differed from their own.

**7. Death.**—The last years of Henry's life were embittered by quarrels with the Prince of Wales, of whom he was jealous on account of his popularity. Besides, his life was unhappy on other accounts. He was tormented by disease; many attempts were made to



murder him, and he believed that the vengeance of God would overtake him for the execution of Archbishop Scroop. When death came upon him he was planning an expedition to the Holy Land, as an atonement for his sins (1413).

8. **Henry V.** (1413—1422).—Henry V. was now



HENRY V. IN HIS PARLIAMENT.

(From the Harleian MSS. in the British Museum.)

a handsome and accomplished young man of six-and-twenty. It was soon seen that he intended to lay aside the follies of his earlier years, and rule as a just and upright king. He placed trust in his father's ministers, and released those men who for political reasons had been imprisoned during the last reign.

9. **Lollards.**—On religious matters Henry V. was as narrow-minded as his father, and he soon

drove the Lollards to side against him ; for they, relying on the young king's friendship for Sir John Oldcastle, a member of their sect, had now become very bold, and preached their doctrines openly. Henry, after he had attempted in vain to persuade his friend to give up the new doctrines, allowed him to be tried. Sir John was condemned to be burnt, but in the interval he managed to escape from the Tower. A conspiracy was formed among the Lollards, in which, however, Sir John seems to have taken no part ; but Henry suppressed it by force, and hanged or burnt the prisoners.

10. **War with France.**—England, indeed, was very restless and unsettled, and Henry determined to distract the attention of the people by a war with France. That poor country was given over to the wildest disorder. Its king, Charles VI., was mad, and two parties, headed by the Duke of Burgundy, the king's uncle, and the Count of Armagnac, waged civil war against each other, whereby France was reduced to great weakness. Henry determined to seize the opportunity to regain, at any rate, the lands which Edward III. had lost, and perhaps win the crown.

11. **Battle of Agincourt** (1415).—Hardly had the English king landed in Normandy, when sickness broke out among the troops and many died. He determined, therefore, to march along the coast to Calais. The march was very difficult, as the country people refused him any provisions, and he was obliged to go for some distance up the river Somme before he could find a place to cross. This allowed the French army, under the Constable d'Albret, to come up with him ; and at *Agincourt*, close to the spot where Cressy had been fought and won, Henry, on October 25, 1415, brought his starved and sick soldiers face to face with an army some nine times their number. But once more

the stout English were to prevail ; for the soil was deep and heavy, and the heavy French cavalry sank into it, while the English archers shot them down from behind a fence made of sharpened stakes. The second line of the French army made a better resistance, and several times Henry was in danger ; but at last the cavalry fled. It was a most glorious victory, though its fame was sullied by the slaughter of all the prisoners, according to the cruel custom of those days. So Henry returned in triumph to England, though he gained nothing permanent by his victory.

12. **The Papal Schism** (1378—1429).—In the misfortunes which overwhelmed France, the Popes had withdrawn from Avignon and returned to Rome. And now a greater disgrace than French patronage weakened the Papacy. There were three Popes, each claiming the sole allegiance of Christendom, while the corruption and worldliness displayed in the contest were destroying the Papal power altogether, and preparing the way for the coming Reformation. Sigismund, Emperor of Germany, wishing to restore unity in Christendom, had convoked a council of the Church at Constance, and was now travelling through Europe in order to obtain support for one of the rival Popes, Benedict XIII. He visited England, hoping also to settle the quarrel between England and France ; but therein he failed, through the stubbornness of the Count of Armagnac.

13. **Conquest of France**.—Once more Henry invaded France, and as the rival parties would not cease from their miserable civil war, his task was easy. Normandy was overrun, then Brittany ; and in 1419 Rouen, the capital of Normandy, fell, after a siege of terrible severity. The French nobles were now greatly terrified, and sent messages to Henry begging for peace. They attempted, also, to settle their own quarrels, but

at a meeting held for that purpose the young Dauphin, Charles, who had now joined the Armagnacs, caused the Duke of Burgundy to be foully murdered. Immediately, Philip, son of the late duke, joined the English; and Henry, thus grown irresistible, was able to force the poor mad King Charles to assent to the *Peace of Troyes* (1420), by which Henry was to marry Charles's daughter Catharine, and rule over France after the French king's death. Shortly afterwards Henry entered Paris in triumph, and there his marriage took place.

**14. Death of Henry V. (1422).**—The French factions, however, still resisted the English conqueror, and many provinces still remained to be subdued. Henry was recalled to France from England by the news that his brother, the Duke of Clarence, had been defeated and slain at Beaugé, near Orleans. Henry marched through France again, and while besieging Meaux received the news that his queen had borne him a son. The north of France was soon in his power, but near Paris he was attacked by a sudden sickness, and died there. The gallant king was mourned for bitterly; for the splendour of his conquests had caused men to forget the injustice of his claims to the French throne, and his earnestness made men forgive many of his faults.

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## CHAPTER VI.

### THE ENGLISH DRIVEN FROM FRANCE.

**1. Henry VI. (1422—1471).**—Charles VI. died the same year. So the infant Henry VI. ascended the thrones of both England and France. In spite of outward glory, a very sad period of our history now begins.

Before Henry's death both crowns had been lost to the House of Lancaster. His widowed mother, Catharine of France, married Owen Tudor, a Welsh nobleman, and it was reserved to their grandson, Henry Tudor, eventually to restore peace to the troubled realm.

2. **The Duke of Bedford.**—By the dead king's commands, the government had been placed in the hands of his brothers, John, Duke of Bedford, and Humphrey, Duke of Gloucester. The first of these was a brave and just man, and was recognised by the barons as *Protector of the Realm*; but the second was rash and unscrupulous. The Dauphin, Charles VII., the vicious son of Charles VI., had disregarded the Treaty of Troyes, which deprived him of his throne, and continued the war. The Duke of Bedford, therefore, strengthened the alliance between England and the Burgundian party by marrying Philip's sister Anne; and shortly afterwards he gained a great victory over the Dauphin at *Verneuil*. Bedford also pleased Scotland by releasing its king, James, who had been a prisoner in England since the reign of Henry IV.

3. **Siege of Orleans (1428).**—The English were steadily gaining ground in France, and laid siege to Orleans. The French army were beaten off in the *Battle of the Herrings*, so called from the fact that the English soldiers defended themselves behind a square of fish-waggons.

4. **Joan of Arc.**—The fall of the city seemed certain, when Joan of Arc, a noble peasant girl who believed that she was sent by God to save her country, appeared before the base Dauphin to persuade him to put her at the head of an army. Aided by a few troops, she brought food by water to the famished garrison of Orleans, and compelled the English generals, who firmly believed that she was a witch, to give up the siege. Thus Orleans was saved, and Joan, with her

triumphant soldiers, pressed the retreating English hard, escorted the Dauphin in triumph to Rheims, and got him crowned there King of the French. But before long Joan was captured by the English. She was tried for witchcraft, condemned, and burnt to death at Rouen; and from that time onwards the English were driven slowly but surely out of France.

**5. Dissensions at Home.**—Meanwhile the restless ambition of Gloucester threw Bedford's Government into disorder. He had already alienated Burgundy by seizing on certain lands in Holland in right of his wife, Jacqueline of Hainault, to which Duke Philip himself claimed to succeed. Then Gloucester claimed the Regency; but it had been denied him. Finding himself checked by his uncle Henry Beaufort, Bishop of Winchester and Lord Chancellor, he plunged into a bitter feud with him. Beaufort had to resign the seals of the Chancellor, and left England (1426). He returned in two years as Cardinal and Legate of the Pope, and Gloucester tried to have him condemned under Richard II.'s Statute of *Præmunire*. It was with difficulty that Bedford could arrange this dispute. And then another great blow fell upon Bedford: his own wife died, and thus the tie that bound him to the House of Burgundy was broken.

**6. Misfortunes Abroad.**—Distracted by these feuds, by the want of money, and by the immense debt created by the war, Bedford now began to wish for peace with France. Beaufort supported him, but this was directly opposed by Gloucester. Nevertheless, Bedford went to Arras, and there tried in vain to arrange terms (1435). Shortly afterwards he died. With him vanished all hope of success; for the Duke of Burgundy had already made peace with Charles VII. In Scotland, however, the murder of the good king James I., who had tried to introduce English customs, and thus turned

his nobles against himself, threw the kingdom into confusion, and so freed England from danger on that side.

7. **The Earl of Suffolk.**—The Earl of Suffolk now appeared in opposition to Gloucester, as the



MARGARET OF ANJOU.

champion of peace, and he negotiated a marriage between young Henry, now aged twenty-two, and Margaret of Anjou, the French queen's niece. This wedding took place in 1444, and the beautiful young queen, on her arrival in England, gained

complete ascendancy over her husband. Suffolk was her trusted adviser, and soon became a duke; and then, wishing to remove his enemy, he caused Gloucester, who disliked this French marriage extremely, to be arrested for supposed treason. Just before his trial, Gloucester was found dead in his bed. Suffolk, probably without justice, was at once suspected of having murdered him; and when Gloucester was followed to the grave by his old enemy, Cardinal Beaufort, the people thought that he too had been poisoned, and began to hate the rule of Suffolk.

**8. The Duke of York.**—Hatred of Suffolk drew the attention of all men to Richard, Duke of York. The death of the king's uncles left him heir-presumptive to Henry VI., and more than that, he could claim through his mother, Anne Mortimer, heiress of the Earls of March, to be the legitimate successor of Edward III. He had fought well in Normandy, and had lately been sent to govern Ireland. It was very easy for him to gain followers. For Suffolk now began to exercise his power unjustly; his enemies were excluded from the Royal Council. He supported the bishops, too, who were at this time highly unpopular on account of their wealth, extravagance, and ostentation. Added to this, district after district was lost to the English in France, and in the summer of 1450 the last fortress in Normandy fell. The brave Talbot, Earl of Shrewsbury, now aged eighty, made a last effort to recover the English possessions in the south-west of France; but Talbot was slain at Chatillon, and Gascony, which had been English for three hundred years, was finally lost (1452). Of the vast continental dominion twice built up by the Plantagenets, Calais alone was left.

**9. Fall of Suffolk** (1450).—As disaster followed disaster, the anger of the nation became ungovernable. In the House of Commons it was resolved



to bring Suffolk to trial, and a long list of charges against him was drawn up; but Henry, wishing to shield his friend, banished him for five years. It was in vain; for the sailors on the great ship *Nicholas of the Tower*, on which he had embarked, beheaded him in a small boat, and cast the body on the Dover Sands. It is thought that they were inspired to do that deed of blood by the Duke of York.

10. **Cade's Rebellion** (1450).—The popular wrath with the Government led to a rebellion among the Kentish peasantry, headed by Jack Cade, an Irishman, who pretended to be a cousin of the Duke of York. The insurgents complained of the general misgovernment, and demanded the punishment of all concerned in it. They marched on London, defeated the royal troops that were sent against them, and then entered the city, where several obnoxious nobles were tried and put to death. Cade's followers then dispersed under promise of pardon, but Cade, who wished to raise a second rebellion, was pursued into Sussex, where he received a mortal wound, and died. The great question of the day was, Who should carry on the government of the disordered kingdom? All men were now of one mind as to the fact that the mild king was incapable of ruling so disturbed a country.

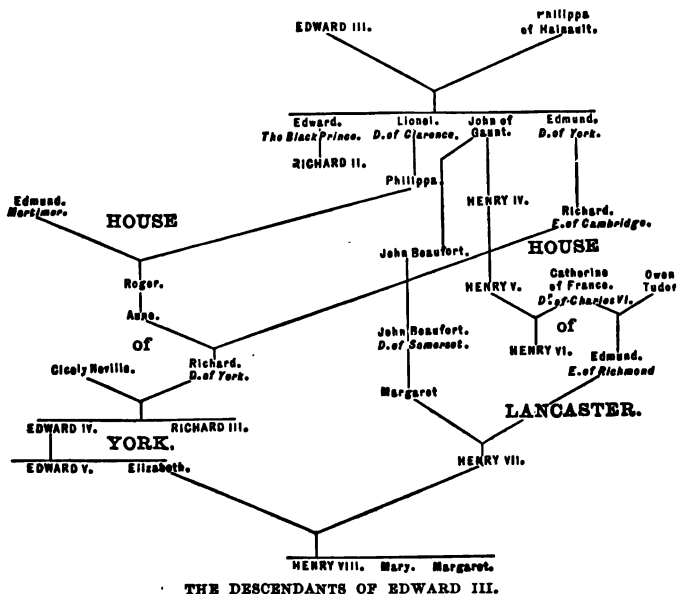
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## CHAPTER VII.

### THE WARS OF THE ROSES.

1. **The Rival Heirs**.—Henry had still no son, and the rightful heir to the kingdom would have been, in this crisis, its proper Protector. This was Richard, Duke of York. But the Duke of Somerset, a nephew

of Cardinal Beaufort, had succeeded to the influence of Suffolk with the king. He was the grandson of John of Gaunt, though by a second and irregular marriage. But for this irregularity, Somerset would have been Henry's heir, and in spite of it, he was the recognised chief of the House of Lancaster. He was, however,



a very unpopular man, to whose incapacity the loss of Normandy had been chiefly due.

**2. York Claims the Succession (1452).—**The Duke of York crossed over from Ireland, and marched with an army upon London, demanding that Somerset should be dismissed, and himself declared Heir-Apparent. Henry was compelled to yield to the im-

prisonment of Somerset; but the birth of a Prince of Wales ruined York's hope of succeeding peaceably to the throne as Henry's heir, and made the able and resolute Queen Margaret the determined enemy of his designs upon the government.

**3. York's First Protectorate (1454).**—At this juncture, however, King Henry, who had always been weak and ailing, became for the time absolutely mad. The king's counsellors were therefore unable to avoid placing the government of England in the hands of the Duke of York.

**4. Civil War.**—But the king seemed to recover his senses. Queen Margaret controlled him, and York lost all his power. Somerset was released, and recovered his former influence with the king. Thereupon York resolved to take up arms; and so the Wars of the Roses began, so called because the Lancastrian or king's party had taken the red rose as their badge, and the Yorkists the white rose.

**5. Battle of St. Albans (1455).**—The two armies met at St. Albans. York and his friend, the powerful Earl of Warwick, known as the "king-maker," from his over-mastering influence in the struggle for the Crown, gained the day, and Somerset was slain. The king and queen had to submit, and Henry proving as incapable of business as before, York was for the second time made Protector, and for a few months could do what he pleased.

**6. War Renewed.**—Again the king recovered (1456), so York again was dismissed. Queen Margaret was resolved that his power should be crushed. Blood had been shed, and lands forfeited. The enmity between the Red Rose and the White could not be reconciled; so York, supported by Warwick, resolved no longer to await Henry's death, but to claim the throne as the rightful heir of Edward III. War recommenced. For

thirty years England was the battle-field of the two parties. The loss fell chiefly upon the nobility, which was almost exterminated in the struggle. The people of England did not take any great interest in the quarrel, and it seems that, except in the counties where the battles were fought, the land was cultivated and justice administered just as if the country was at peace.

**7. Triumph of the Yorkists (1460).—**At first the Yorkists, after defeating the queen, who now bravely commanded her husband's troops, were obliged to disperse, owing to the treachery of one of their captains. Then Warwick, who had fled to Calais, returned with an army, and the battle of *Northampton* resulted in a complete victory for the Yorkists and the capture of the king. The Duke of York now formally laid claim to the throne. The matter was referred to the House of Lords, and they, after much hesitation, decided that King Henry should rule for the remainder of his life, but that the Duke of York, instead of Edward, Prince of Wales, should succeed him.



COSTUME OF  
GENTLEMAN  
(1460).

**8. Battle of Wakefield (1460).—**To this injustice to her son, Queen Margaret would not submit. Hastily collecting some troops among her friends in the north of England, she met the Duke of York, who came against her, at *Wakefield*. There he was defeated and slain, just at the moment when the throne for which he had plotted seemed to be waiting for him.

**9. Edward of York King (1461).—**But Margaret's triumph was short. Young Edward, York's son, at once took command of his father's friends. Again the queen defeated him at *St. Albans*, but

she was unable to prevent her troops from plundering, and so allowed him to get to London before her. There the citizens, who had loved his father well, received him gladly, and he was proclaimed King of England as Edward IV. But though Edward was king, his power was by no means secure; and it was not until he had collected a considerable body of troops, and defeated Henry and his queen at *Towton*, after a terrible battle among the snow-drifts, that he was able to assume the crown. Even then many castles continued to hold out for Henry.

**10. The Yorkist Rule.**—Edward IV. (1461—



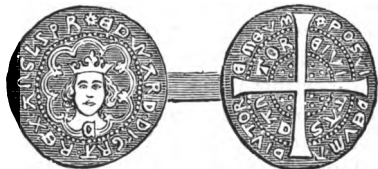
HAND-GUN, REIGN OF EDWARD IV.

1483) claimed to reign as the rightful heir of Edward III. and Richard II. The three Lancastrian kings were declared usurpers, their acts annulled, their grants of lands resumed by the Crown, and their followers attainted as traitors.

**11. Resistance of Margaret.**—These reckless measures made peace impossible. To the whole Lancastrian party it became a matter of life and death to expel Edward IV. Scotland and the north still supported Henry. Margaret fled to France, where the crafty French king, Louis XI., gave her but little help, though he was glad to see England in confusion. After many adventures, during which she was nearly drowned at sea, the queen was obliged to retire to her father's duchy in Lorraine and wait for better days. Her English friends were defeated in two battles, and finally Henry was hunted down in Yorkshire, and sent as prisoner to the Tower of London.

**12. Yorkist Dissensions.**—Edward was now with-

out a rival. His people liked him, for he would chat pleasantly with the humblest among them, and he was especially popular with the merchants, in whose trade he took great interest. William Caxton, who first brought the new invention of *Printing* into England (1476), was a favourite of his, and was employed by him as ambassador to Burgundy. But the king angered the proud nobles by marrying Lady Elizabeth Woodville for her beauty, though he might have wedded some foreign princess, and by raising her relations to positions in England equal to their own. The great Earl of Warwick, head of the House of Neville, to whom Edward owed his throne, was especially angry at this marriage. Besides, Warwick wished that England should form a close alliance with Louis XI. against Charles the Bold, Duke of Burgundy.



HALF-GROAT OF EDWARD IV.

But Charles had now added Flanders to his wide dominions, and Edward, who gained a large revenue from taxes called *Tonnage and Poundage*, granted to him for life by Parliament, chiefly derived from commerce between England and Flanders, found that his interests and those of Charles had much in common. He therefore formed a secret treaty with that prince, and betrothed his sister Margaret to him, while Warwick was absent in France. On his return to England the haughty baron found himself completely duped (1467). Forthwith he set himself to thwart Edward. He won over the king's brother, the Duke of Clarence, by giving him in marriage his daughter Isabel; and then he occupied himself in stirring up insurrections against the king throughout England.

**13. Insurrections.**—The followers of Sir John Conyers, who took the false name of Robin of Redesdale, seized and beheaded the queen's father and brother. At the same time the Earl of Warwick and the Duke of Clarence came over from Calais and took the king prisoner. But peace was restored for a time by Edward's proposal to betroth his only child Elizabeth to Warwick's nephew and heir. In the following year, however, a new rebellion broke out, with Sir Robert Wells, a friend of Warwick, at its head. Edward utterly defeated them at a battle called "Lose-coat Field," and Warwick fled with Clarence to France.

**14. Warwick Joins the Lancastrians (1470).**—He was received with joy by the crafty French king, who saw that he might greatly weaken England by supporting Warwick. Accordingly he prevailed on the earl to become reconciled to his old enemy, Queen Margaret, and so Warwick promised to fight for the House of Lancaster, if the Prince of Wales should be betrothed to his second daughter, Anne. All this was very distasteful to Clarence, who hoped to be king, and was not pleased to see that Warwick intended to support Henry VI. rather than himself.

**15. Flight of Edward IV.**—Warwick landed in Devonshire. King Edward, who was naturally a lazy man, was taken completely by surprise, and barely escaped from Warwick's brother Montague. With hot haste he rode to the sea-shore, and with a few followers sailed to Burgundy. Poor old King Henry was taken from the Tower, and recrowned with much pomp. Warwick and Clarence were to be Protectors, and the acts of Edward IV. were repealed.

**16. Return.**—But within six months Edward was on the throne of England again. With the aid of his brother-in-law, Charles the Bold, he fitted out some ships, and landed in Yorkshire. His silly brother

Clarence promptly deserted Warwick, and led a large body of troops to join him, and so the king was once more received with joy by the London citizens.

17. **Ruin of the Lancastrians** (1471).—Warwick marched on London, and met the Yorkist forces at *Barnet*. A thick fog hung over the ground, and Warwick's friends shot one another down in the darkness, so that they were thrown into confusion and fled. Henry VI. was captured. Warwick and Montague fought bravely on, but at length were overcome and slain. Meanwhile Queen Margaret had landed in the south, and was hastening to Wales, where she expected many friends to join her. But Edward was too rapid in his movements for her, and she was obliged to turn and fight him at *Tewkesbury*. Margaret was defeated once more, her son, the Prince of Wales, was slain in the battle, and she herself was taken prisoner. Then Edward returned to London, and on that very evening it became known that Henry VI. had died in the Tower. Probably he was murdered. The House of York could now rule without any one to question their authority.

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## CHAPTER VIII.

### THE HOUSE OF YORK.

1. **War with France.**—Having thus settled affairs in England, Edward, who had some love of enterprise and still more of display, resolved to join Charles the Bold in an expedition to chastise France. Accordingly he fitted out a magnificent army and crossed the Channel. But the French king, by bribing the English ambassadors, induced him to abandon the war. A yearly tribute was promised Edward, together with an



acknowledgment of his claim to the French crown, and it was arranged that the Dauphin, Charles, should marry the Princess Elizabeth (1475).

2. **Clarence and Gloucester.**—Meanwhile a quarrel had broken out between the king's brothers, the empty-headed Clarence and the designing Richard, Duke of Gloucester. It will be remembered that Clarence had married Warwick's elder daughter, and now Richard wished to marry his younger daughter, Anne, the widow of Edward, the Lancastrian Prince of Wales, who was killed at Tewkesbury. Having failed to prevent this marriage, Clarence refused to divide Warwick's inheritance with his brother, but this Edward forced him to do. A few years afterwards Clarence fell out with his other brother, the king; for his wife Isabel was now dead, and he wished to marry Mary of Burgundy, the heiress of Charles the Bold, who had been killed in battle with the Swiss. As this would make him one of the most powerful princes in Europe, Edward resolved to hinder him. Richard inflamed the quarrel, and Clarence's conduct became so very overbearing that Edward had him arrested, tried, and condemned to death (1478).

3. **Rupture with France** (1483).—Soon afterwards King Edward learned that he had been tricked by the crafty French king. Louis broke off the engagement between the Dauphin and Elizabeth, and betrothed him to Margaret, the infant daughter of Mary of Burgundy, who had married Maximilian of Austria, the future emperor. Edward was furious at this insult, and was preparing to invade France, when he died suddenly.

4. **Edward V.** (1483).—Richard of Gloucester seized upon the government. He captured his young nephew, Edward V., on his way to London. Queen Elizabeth fled into sanctuary on hearing that Gloucester with her son were drawing near the capital. However,

no harm happened to her. The coronation day was fixed, and the young king's uncle was named Protector.

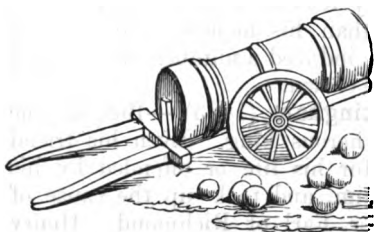
**5. Richard III.** (1483—1485).—Richard, however, himself meant to be king. The queen's relations, who were hated on all sides, and every one else likely to resist him in his wicked designs, were executed or imprisoned. Edward V. and his brother were placed in the Tower, from whence they never came out alive. Two hundred years afterwards the skeletons of the two boys were discovered, buried at the foot of the Tower staircase. Finally, the Duke of Buckingham, Richard's strongest supporter, made a speech to the people in which he set forth many reasons why Richard should rule England rather than his nephew, and through his persuasive eloquence induced a number of lords and citizens to offer him the crown.

**6. Revolt of Buckingham** (1483).—But no one felt safe with the treacherous king. Even his friend Buckingham, fearing for his life or offended by his ingratitude, deserted him, and took up the cause of his cousin, Henry Tudor, Earl of Richmond. Henry was the heir, through his mother, of John Beaufort, the Duke of Somerset, while his father was the son of Queen Catherine, the widow of Henry V. He was therefore now regarded as the heir of the House of Lancaster. He was an exile in Brittany, but was invited by Buckingham, who was also descended from the Beauforts, to make an attempt on England. It was arranged that he should marry Margaret, the only surviving issue of Edward IV. In a moment a widespread conspiracy against King Richard broke out over all the south of England. But Richard, who was a very fine soldier, was too clever for the rebels. Buckingham was beheaded. Henry returned to Brittany, and watched his time for a better opportunity.

**7.** The king attempted to strengthen his power by

professing to abolish the forced loans, or *benevolences*, exacted by Edward IV., and by reconciling himself to Elizabeth and Margaret, the widow and daughter of his brother Edward. His only child, Edward, had died, and Richard had nominated as his heir his nephew, John, Earl of Lincoln, son of the unpopular Duke of Suffolk, the friend of Henry VI. But now his own queen, Anne Neville, followed her son mysteriously to the grave, and Richard proposed to marry his niece Margaret himself.

**8. The End of the Yorkist Rule (1485).—**Without more delay Richmond landed at Milford Haven.



CANNON OF THE FIFTEENTH CENTURY.

He marched unopposed to Shrewsbury, where many of Richard's false friends joined him. Richard drew near, and encamped on *Bosworth Field*. There the Stanleys, a family on whom the king had conferred the greatest favours, but who were connected by marriage with Henry, left the royal camp and joined the forces of the Earl of Richmond. This ungrateful treachery decided the fortunes of the day. Richard fought with great valour, but fell, crying "Treason! treason!" and after the battle one of the Stanleys placed his crown on the head of Henry of Richmond. Thus the murder of the young princes was avenged, and thus the House of York came to an end, and the first of the Tudors became king.

## CHAPTER IX.

## THE RESTORATION OF ORDER.

1. **York and Lancaster United.**—Henry VII. (1485—1509) soon proved himself a wary and cautious man. Knowing that his claim to the crown was a bad one, he got Parliament to declare him King of England, and then married Elizabeth, the daughter of Edward IV. Thus, since he himself represented the House of Lancaster, and his wife the House of York, it seemed as if no one could disturb his title; and as the country was weary of warfare, every one acquiesced gladly in his rule.

2. **Establishment of Order.**—Henry's first object was to establish order, and limit the military power of the great nobles who had survived the Wars of the Roses. In the late wars estates had been granted and confiscated wholesale. In 1456 York had revoked all grants made in Henry VI.'s reign, and now Henry himself took back all that had been granted since then. No man's property was secure. By the *Statute of Fines*, therefore (1487), Henry ordained that no man should be disturbed in his possession if he publicly claimed it in court, and if no one should claim it from him afterwards within five years. By the *Statute of Maintenance* he made it illegal to take up the cause of another man in the law-courts, as the nobles had done, intimidating the judges into giving sentence for their friends; and by the *Statute of Liveries* he forbade the nobles to keep about them in future bodies of armed retainers in their livery or uniform. He also established a special Court, consisting of the great officers of his Privy Council, for the trial of men too powerful to receive their deserts from the ordinary law-courts, which

received its name of the *Star Chamber* from the room in which it was held at Westminster, the ceiling of which was covered with stars of gold. Finally, to insure orderly government in spite of any changes in the dynasty, it was decreed that no person doing true and faithful service to the sovereign lord of the land for the time being should be convicted of high treason (1496). All these measures were passed by Parliament.

**3. Pretenders.**—Henry was at first greatly troubled by pretenders to the crown. The first of these was one Lambert Simnel, who gave himself out to be the young Earl of Warwick, the son of the unfortunate Clarence, whom Henry had shut up in the Tower. He was supported by the friends of Richard III., especially by his heir, the Earl of Lincoln, and by the Irish nobles; but Henry defeated them at Stoke; Lincoln was slain, and Simnel, who had aspired to be King of England, became, it is said, a cook-boy in Henry's kitchen.

**4. Perkin Warbeck.**—A second pretender appeared in the year 1492, called Perkin Warbeck, and he declared himself to be the younger of the princes who were slain in the Tower. He fled to France, where Charles VIII., the son of Louis XI., had, though half-idiotic, succeeded his father. Henry had promised help to the Duke of Brittany against Charles, in return for the help rendered to himself in his expeditions against Richard III. Now, however, he obtained the banishment of Warbeck from France, on condition of withdrawing all support from the Bretons. The pretender then went to Burgundy, but he was driven from thence also, owing to Henry's offer of a favourable alliance with that country. Scotland, however, received him gladly. He married a relation of the king, James IV., who declared war against England and

the "usurper Henry Tudor;" but he soon found that no one would support Warbeck in England.

5. However, the men of Cornwall declined to pay the taxes which Henry imposed on them for the purpose of raising an army, and rose in revolt. Perkin Warbeck placed himself at their head, but after an attempt to take Exeter his courage left him, and he fled. He was soon captured, and taken to London, where he confessed that he was an impostor, and was allowed to go at large. Before long, however, he was concerned in a plot with the young Earl of Warwick, and was executed for high treason. It is thought by some that he really was some relation to the house of York, for he strongly resembled many of the family.

6. **Reduction of Ireland.**—Meanwhile Henry's governor, Sir Edward Poynings, had reduced Ireland to submission, and by *Poyning's Law* (1495) the Irish Parliament was placed completely under the control of the king and his council. No Irish Bill could be passed without their previous approval. The Earl of Kildare, a turbulent noble, was sent as a prisoner to England, but set free again on promising to live peacefully.

7. **Financial Policy.**—For the remainder of his reign Henry lived at peace at home and abroad. He saved his money carefully, and as Parliament had allowed him at the beginning of the reign the tax of *Tonnage and Poundage* upon all foreign commerce, he was able to live without any fresh grants. Therefore Parliament, which the king feared might object to some of his actions, was seldom summoned. He was avaricious, however, and enforced to the utmost the fines he could claim under the Feudal Law or the Statutes. He exacted heavy fees from officials on their appointment, and from suitors in his courts of justice, and he sold pardons to criminals. When he had wanted money for his wars, he had not attempted

general taxation, lest the nation should resist, but had extorted loans or gifts, called *Benevolences*, from rich men. In all this Empson and Dudley, his barons of the exchequer, were his ruthless and hated instruments.

8. **Foreign Alliances.**—He also made alliances with several of the kingdoms of Europe, and a commercial treaty, called "The Great Intercourse," with Burgundy. A perpetual peace was concluded with Scotland, and its king, James IV., married Henry's daughter Margaret. From that marriage sprang the Stuarts, who, as we shall see, ruled England after the death of Queen Elizabeth, the last of the Tudors.

9. **Catharine of Arragon.**—Henry's eldest son, Prince Arthur, was married to Catharine, the daughter of Ferdinand, King of Arragon—a wise prince, who united Spain into a single realm, and laid the foundations of its greatness. But Prince Arthur died, and Ferdinand at once proposed to marry her to Prince Henry, his younger brother. To do this it was necessary to gain the consent of the Pope; but though this was with difficulty obtained, the king, who did not like the marriage, put it off until death came upon him (1509).

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## CHAPTER X.

### THE NEW AGE.

1. **The New Age.**—Henry VIII. (1509—1547) was now eighteen years old—one of the best looking and strongest men of his time. He had been educated for the Church, and was full of interest in that New Birth, or RENAISSANCE, of thought and learning which spread all over Europe about this time.

Indeed, a great change was now at hand. Hitherto the history of England has been *mediæval*. Now it begins to be *modern*. The thoughts, the faiths, the feelings, and the systems of the Middle Ages were passing away. The discovery of the New World by Columbus (1492), and of the sea-route to India by Vasco da Gama (1497), had widened all men's views of the world they lived in, and taught them many things which none before had dreamt of. The invention of printing began to spread books far and wide, and the newest thoughts about Religion and Politics and Science passed from hand to hand. Men began to think once more for themselves, and rushed eagerly into the study of Greek and Latin, in which the forgotten wisdom of the ancients was locked up. The Renaissance kindled every nation of the West, from Italy in the South to England in the North. In Italy its excitement turned principally to Art. Men looked with fresh eyes at the loveliness of the earth, and at the beauty of the relics of ancient artists. They strove to imitate them, and from their efforts modern painting, sculpture, and architecture have sprung. In England, though men then cared little for Art, the effects of this stir and excitement were far wider and deeper. It produced an interest in *Literature*, from which sprang some of the noblest books and poetry ever written by man; and it led to changes in our Religion, our Constitution, and our relations with the World outside, which have transformed this little island into the metropolis of the greatest empire upon earth.

**2. Foreign Enterprises.**—At this epoch, too, the nations of Europe had completed their growth into their present form, and they now began to strive for mastery with each other. The chivalrous Maximilian of Germany, the crafty Ferdinand of Spain, and the aggressive Louis XII. of France, represented the three great powers.



The youthful Henry was highly flattered to find each in turn seeking his alliance, and soon wasted his father's treasure in a profitless interference with the affairs of Europe.

### 3. Alliance with Spain.—His first act was to



FOOT SOLDIER IN THE REIGN OF  
HENRY VIII.

cement his alliance with Spain by marrying Catharine, his brother's widow. Now the French, under their king, Louis XII., had invaded Italy, and the Pope, Julius II., wishing to drive them out again, formed what he called a *Holy League* or Alliance, which was joined by Ferdinand, King of Spain, Maximilian, Emperor of Germany, and Henry VIII. of England. Henry therefore, who dreamt of recovering the French dominions, sent an army under the Marquis of Dorset, a grandson of Edward IV.'s wife Elizabeth, to the south of France; but his men fell ill, and the crafty Ferdinand, who wished to get the kingdom of Navarre for himself, would

not allow the English to attack France until Navarre had been conquered; so the Marquis of Dorset had to return without honour to England. In the following year Henry attacked France from the north-west, and, with Maximilian—"the Penniless," as men called him, because he never had any money to carry out his enterprises—serving as a captain under him,

defeated the French, who were seized with terror and ran away, at a battle called for that reason the *Battle of Spurs* (1513).

4. **War with Scotland** (1513).—Meanwhile the English king had become entangled in a dispute with his brother-in-law, James IV. of Scotland. The question was unimportant, but as Henry proudly declined to give satisfaction, the Scotch king renewed the old alliance with France and declared war. The Earl of Surrey met him at *Flodden Field*, just over the border of Scotland; and James, though part of his army fought bravely and well, was conquered and slain, with his chief nobles around him. Scotland was left as a prey to hostile parties; and soon the king's widow, Margaret, was driven from Scotland, and fled to the court of her brother Henry. The Duke of Albany was made Regent until young James V. came of age.

5. **Alliance with France**.—Henry had by this time been deserted by all his foreign allies. He made peace with France, and his beautiful sister Mary had married the old French king, but Louis died soon afterwards, and she gladly became the wife of her old lover, Charles Brandon, Duke of Suffolk, a handsome and gallant man. The new King of France, Francis I., having reconquered in Italy what Louis XII. had lost, was glad to keep on good terms with England, till in 1518 an alliance was concluded between Henry of England and all the Great Powers against the Ottoman Turks, who had taken Constantinople (1453), and were now planning the conquest of Christendom.

6. **Wolsey**.—Henry's chief counsellor during these affairs had been Thomas Wolsey. This man had been born of humble parents, but had attracted the attention of the king by his talents, and soon became his trusted minister and friend. Honours fell rapidly to his share. In 1515 he became Lord Chancellor; the Pope, Leo X.,

also conferred great gifts upon him, and he was made a Cardinal; and then a *Legate*, or ambassador from the Pope. Wolsey lived in great splendour, with a large retinue of servants and horses. Hence he was hated by the nobles, who were jealous of him.

**7. The Imperial Crown.**—Now in 1519 the Emperor Maximilian died. The emperors were elected by seven of the great princes of Germany, and Henry of England thought he would become a candidate for the vacant throne. So did Francis I., who was quite as ambitious as Henry, and quite as unscrupulous, while Maximilian's grandson, Charles, Duke of Burgundy, was also a competitor. Henry, still aiming at the recovery of France, and seeing that his own chance was but small, gave all the help he could to Charles, his own wife's nephew; and that prince became Emperor accordingly. Besides, Charles ruled over Spain, for he was Ferdinand's grandson as well as Maximilian's. Holland and the greater part of Italy—in fact, at least a third of Europe—belonged to him.

**8. Alliance with France.**—Francis grew frightened at this alliance of Henry with Charles. Accordingly, he invited Henry to France, and there the two great kings met on a field which, from the splendour of their majestic attire, the magnificence of the liveries of their followers, and the gorgeous trappings of their horses, was called the Field of the Cloth of Gold (1519).

**9. Wolsey's Intrigues.**—Meanwhile Wolsey meant himself to be Pope. Francis had bought his support by undertaking to secure his election. But now seeing that Charles's influence was strong at Rome, Wolsey accepted his master's inclination to join the side of the Emperor of Germany. Accordingly, the troops of Charles drove the French out of Italy; but Henry, who sent several expeditions to France, could gain but little success in that country, and inclined to peace.



THE ENGLISH.



THE FRENCH.

FIELD OF THE CLOTH OF GOLD.

Wolsey, too, twice disappointed of his election to the Papacy, began to think that the emperor was playing him false. At last Francis, who had attempted to recover his lost dominions in Italy, was defeated and taken prisoner by the Germans at *Pavia* (1525). Then both Wolsey and the English king saw that they were allowing Charles to become by far too mighty, and upon the release of Francis, entered into close alliance with him.

**10. Wolsey and Parliament.**—Now Wolsey had before this added the hatred of the people to that which the nobles bore against him. He had tried, like Henry VII., to govern without Parliament, and when money was urgently required to carry on the war with France, he exacted Benevolences and compulsory loans from the people. At length, Wolsey was obliged to summon Parliament and ask them for a large grant (1523). Seeing that the Commons were not disposed to obey him, though the king's own candidates had been forced upon the electors by the sheriffs, the Cardinal attempted to gain his end by coming down to the House with great pomp, and attended by a large body of followers. Wolsey was baffled, however, for the time being, but in the end a small grant of money was voted.

**11.** Two years afterwards it became necessary to raise more money; and now Wolsey, warned by his former difficulty, resolved not to summon Parliament, but to collect it on the king's authority alone. But the people rose in revolt, and it became evident that the people would not submit much longer to the arbitrary rule of the court.

**12. Henry and Catharine.**—The king, indeed, was growing very arrogant and dictatorial. He was getting tired of his wife Catharine. She had not borne him a son, and Henry knew that if he died without an heir, five or six men, who were descendants of the House of Lan-

caster, would at once lay claim to the throne. Besides, he did not love her; she was not beautiful, and it is said that she was of a jealous disposition. Wolsey eagerly fell in with his master's plans of divorce, for the Queen disliked him as an upstart, and also as the aunt of Charles V. she stood in the way of Henry's new alliance with France. But the king was anxious to bring about the divorce for reasons very different to Wolsey's. The Cardinal wished Henry to marry a French princess, and so to strengthen the alliance with France; but the king had secretly fallen in love with the beautiful Anne Boleyn, one of the queen's attendants, whose relations all hated Wolsey.

**13. The Reformation.**—Meanwhile the Reformation had begun—that great religious movement which Martin Luther led. The Church of England, the great Non-conformist communities—Methodists, Baptists, Congregationalists, and many others—the Protestant Churches in France, Germany, and elsewhere, all owe the doctrines they profess to Luther; and though they differ with one another on certain points, they all agree in their opposition to many of the things taught by the Church of Rome. They are called Protestants, because they *protested* against the decrees of the Pope, declining to accept beliefs they did not find to be justified by the testimony of the Bible. Henry himself wrote against Luther, and received as a token of gratitude from Pope Leo X. the title of “Defender of the Faith,” which his successors have borne to the present day.

**14. Divorce Proposed (1527).**—Henry, therefore, was on very good terms with the Pope; and, encouraged by Wolsey, thought that the Pope could not refuse the request for a divorce. He asserted that Catharine's marriage with Henry had been illegal from the beginning, on account of her previous marriage with his brother Arthur; but it was alleged on the other side

that it had been made lawful and irrevocable by the permission of Pope Julius II.

**15. The Pope Refuses (1529).**—Great was Wolsey's dismay when he found that Pope Clement VII. would not consent to the divorce; for he was greatly afraid of the Emperor Charles, who would not forsake his aunt, and so he evaded giving any decision.



CATHARINE OF ARRAGON.

**16. Fall of Wolsey (1529).**  
—Henry promptly turned his anger on the unfortunate minister. Wolsey was compelled to resign his offices and wealth, and a charge of treason was brought against him; but he was bravely defended by his servant and friend, Thomas Cromwell, and allowed to retire to York, of which diocese he was archbishop. Even there the fallen statesman was not allowed to rest in peace.

The charge of treason was brought forward once more, and at Leicester Abbey, on his way to London, he was seized with a mortal illness. "If I had served my God," he exclaimed before his death, "as diligently as I have served my king, He would not have given me over in my grey hairs."

## CHAPTER XI.

### THE ECCLESIASTICAL REVOLUTION.

**1. The Quarrel with the Pope.**—Thus Henry entered into his quarrel with the Pope, supported by the goodwill of the nation, who had for centuries resisted

his interference in their politics and his claims upon the Church revenues, and whose belief in the Church of Rome was now widely undermined by the unextinguished spirit of Wyclif's Lollardy and the new preaching, by the corruption of the monasteries, and by the general misuse of the endowments of the Church of England. Henry was determined to get rid of his wife Catharine, and if he could not do so with the consent of the Pope, he determined to throw off his authority altogether. In this course of action he was guided by Thomas Cromwell, whose gallant defence of Cardinal Wolsey had attracted Henry's attention, and obtained for him a place among the king's advisers.

**2. The Church of England.**—Henry now summoned Parliament, and, supported by it heartily, took his revenge first on the English clergy. They were compelled to pay an enormous fine, as a punishment for having recognised Wolsey as Papal legate, contrary to the Statute of Præmunire. Various abuses were amended, and every tie that bound them to Rome was severed one by one. Finally, Henry styled himself *Supreme Head on earth of the Church of England*. The bishops had to resign their sees, and receive them back from himself; and Cromwell was appointed *Vicar-General* to execute this new prerogative.

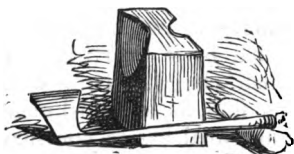
**3. Henry's Second Marriage (1532).**—At last the king married Anne Boleyn; and Cranmer, the Archbishop of Canterbury, pronounced the divorce of Catharine. Queen Catharine, who acted all this while like a brave and noble woman, was obliged to retire to Kimbolton Castle, where soon afterwards she died.

**4. Resistance of the Catholics.**—Meanwhile many of the nobles were much inclined to feel pity for the unfortunate queen, and to resist the violent changes that were being carried out in the Church. They got hold of a half-mad girl, called the "Nun of Kent,"



who was instructed to prophesy that the king should die, because of his ill-treatment of the clergy. The nun soon collected many followers about her, and the king, who was apt to punish severely anything that looked like rebellion, had the unfortunate woman seized and put to death.

**5. More and Fisher.**—The upright Sir Thomas More, who had succeeded Wolsey as Chancellor, was imprisoned for refusing to take an oath, imposed by Parliament to secure the succession to Anne's offspring, which implied that Henry's marriage with Catharine had been unlawful, and that the Pope had no power



AXE AND BLOCK FROM THE TOWER.

to have authorised it. While he and Fisher, Bishop of Rochester, were lying in prison on this account, they were summoned to swear obedience to a law that went still more against their conscience. This was the "Act of Supremacy," by which the king was declared Supreme Head of the Church of England, and all who questioned his right to that title were called traitors. Now More and Fisher had throughout disapproved of Henry's second marriage, and of his quarrel with the Pope, and therefore they refused to obey him. They were both condemned to death, through the advice of Henry's stern minister, Cromwell. Fisher died first, and then More approached the scaffold. As he carefully moved his beard from the way of the axe, he was heard to remark, "Pity that should be cut; that has never committed treason." More died as he had lived, a witty, truthful, and noble-hearted man. But the king's unjust deeds produced great indignation throughout the kingdom, and during the next few years insurrection followed insurrection.

**6. Irish Rebellion.**—The first of these rebellions was in Ireland, where Fitzgerald, Earl of Kildare, who governed in the king's name, was ever ready to turn traitor, in spite of the pardons that had been granted him for his former transgressions. Charles, Emperor of Germany, contemplated an invasion of England to avenge his aunt Catharine. Kildare opened an intrigue with him. He was summoned to England, and thrown into prison; whereupon his son, Lord Thomas Fitzgerald, rose in rebellion, and, having cruelly murdered the Archbishop of Dublin, he announced that he would set Ireland free. But the rival Irish family, of whom the Earl of Ormond was chief, were true to Henry, and ably supported his soldiers. After suffering several defeats, Lord Thomas surrendered, and was taken to London, where he was hanged as a traitor. Henry made his power to be felt all over the country. The native chiefs were persuaded to acknowledge English rule, and to introduce English laws among their tribes; and so efficient was Cromwell's rule that the turbulent Irish did not again cause anxiety to England until the reign of Elizabeth.

**7. Suppression of Monasteries (1536).**—England was then covered with convents and monasteries, which had been originally built as homes for men and women who were weary of the wickedness of the world, and wished to spend the remainder of their lives in repenting their past sins and in prayer to God. Originally the inhabitants of these places were poorly fed and clothed, and lived lives of great hardship; but in course of time good people gave them lands and money, and while they became rich, their mode of life changed. They lived sumptuously, and became lazy and immoral. Accordingly, by the advice of the Vicar-General, three learned men were sent to inquire into the condition of these establishments, and in 1536 they presented their report

to the Commons. They declared that the condition of the smaller monasteries was so bad that Parliament decreed that they must be at once abolished. Their lands and revenues were confiscated. Part was applied

to the foundation of schools, and other public objects, but most was squandered among the king's favourites.



GENTLEMAN OF FASHION.  
(Time of Henry VIII.)

**8. Henry's Third Marriage** (1536).—In the same year the miserable queen, Anne Boleyn, received the reward of her ambition. Henry had grown weary of her, as he had before grown weary of Catharine of Spain, and in order to get rid of his second wife, he spread tales abroad that she cared for him no longer, and had fallen in love with Sir Henry Norris, a gentleman of the court. She was tried for treason, and executed. On the following day Henry married a third wife, Jane Seymour.

**9. Rebellions.**—The hatred which the old nobles entertained towards the upstart Cromwell was increased tenfold by his spoliation of the Church. The common people also were very miserable at this time, partly because the wool trade with Flanders being very profitable, plough-lands were being turned into pasture for sheep. Fewer labourers were needed, and, finding no employment, they had to leave the homes where they, and their fathers before

them, had lived. Accordingly, rebellions broke out in Lincolnshire and in the south of England; but the royal troops soon dispersed the ill-armed bands. In the north, however, especially in Yorkshire, it seemed not improbable that they would overthrow the Government. There the leaders of the movement were Aske, a young lawyer, and Lord Darcy, a powerful Yorkshire nobleman; the great Yorkshire abbeys threw all their influence into the scale, and thousands set out on the *Pilgrimage of Grace* to compel the king to undo the recent changes (1536). But they were met by the king's general, Norfolk, and dispersed on condition that a general pardon should be granted them, and their grievances considered at a Parliament. But it soon became known that Norfolk had played them false: Aske and Darcy were seized and hanged. Deprived of their patriotic leaders, the rebels were of course helpless, and their moderation, when they might easily have overpowered the royal troops, met an unjust reward in the terrible number of executions by which the insurrection was crushed. The Marquis of Exeter led a revolt of the western nobles, but this also was crushed.

**10. The Reformation in England.**—Meanwhile the religious views which Martin Luther had taught in Germany had gained many followers in England. Henry, who disliked Luther and his teaching, was compelled by his quarrel with the Pope to accept that doctrine which declared that the Bible was the only authority on questions of faith; and accordingly an authorised translation of the English Bible, by Miles Coverdale, was published in 1538. The services of the Church had hitherto been conducted in the Latin tongue, of which the people could understand very little. But now a book was placed in every man's hand which he could read for himself, and by which he could direct his life and form his opinions.

**11. Second Dissolution of Monasteries (1539).**  
—The publication of the Bible was followed by the dissolution of the larger monasteries. The lands and wealth which had been acquired by these institutions were immense, but they were free from the vices of the Smaller Houses. The monks were good landlords. They relieved poverty, ministered to the sick, and



**FOUNTAINS ABBEY, ABOLISHED AT THE DISSOLUTION OF MONASTERIES.**

educated the poor children in their neighbourhood. Several of their abbots, too, sat in the House of Lords. Therefore it was impossible to suppress them at once, as had been done in the case of the lesser monasteries. But many had taken part in the "Pilgrimage of Grace." The abbot of the noble foundation of Fountains and others had been hung as traitors. Cromwell frightened them into surrender one by one; and year after year many of these communities con-

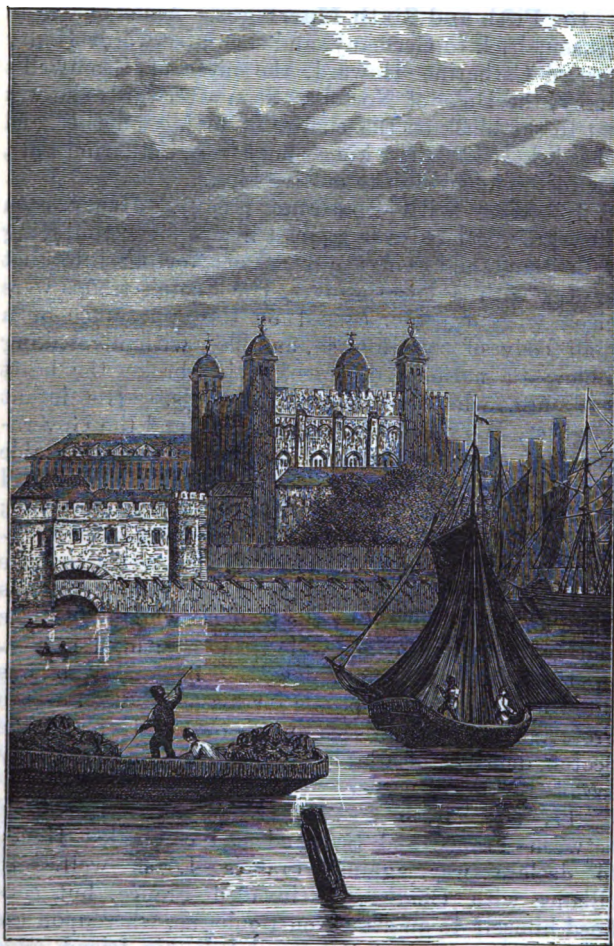
sented to be dissolved, provided that each member of the brotherhood received a sufficient pension. The work of destruction was accomplished in 1539, when the six hundred monasteries that remained fell at once, being handed over to the king by an Act of Parliament. Henry proposed to use the vast sums thus acquired in founding bishoprics and building cathedrals and schools, but in the end only six bishoprics were founded, and the remainder of the endowments were, as before, wasted in gifts to his favourites. Many of the great English nobles of the present day date their rise from Henry's grants of Church lands to their ancestors.

12. **The Six Articles** (1539).—Chief among Cromwell's enemies in the council was the Earl of Norfolk, the head of the nobility and of the Catholic cause. Henry was now persuaded by Norfolk's party that Cromwell's changes were by far too violent, and that the common people were getting dangerously excited. He agreed to a Bill known as the *Six Articles*, which asserted strongly many doctrines of the Church of Rome, against which Luther and the Reformers had preached and taught, and which enacted severe punishments for those who denied the truth of them. Under this cruel law many people were arrested, and some were put to death. Cromwell, though he saw that his power was slipping away, struggled hard to save those who were condemned.

13. **Henry's Fourth Marriage** (1540).—Jane Seymour had died soon after the birth of Edward, Prince of Wales. Charles V. was endeavouring to induce Francis I. to join him in an invasion of England, to place Catharine's daughter Mary upon the throne. Cromwell, anxious to secure allies against this formidable danger, persuaded Henry to a marriage with Anne, daughter of the Duke of Cleves. By this marriage Henry would have become connected with the Protestant princes of

Germany, who were at this time in arms against the Emperor Charles. The princess was plain; so Cromwell, in order to obtain the king's consent, made the famous artist Holbein paint a flattering portrait of her for the king. When Henry went to Rochester full of expectation, he was much disgusted by the appearance of his bride, "the Flemish mare," as he called her, not a word of whose language could he understand. He was furious with Cromwell, whom he considered to have deliberately deceived him.

14. **Fall of Cromwell** (1540).—The failure of Cromwell's plans for an alliance between England, France, and the German Protestants followed this disastrous marriage; and Henry, who never failed to desert his servants as soon as they became useless, delivered him over to the fury of his enemies. He was arrested at the very council-table, accused of befriending heretics, and of having made a fortune by bribes. In Cromwell's hands Parliament, filled by court officials, bribed by royal favours, or intimidated by the royal authority, had become merely an instrument for carrying out Henry's wishes. It had sacrificed at his demand the right, established under Edward II., that laws could only be made with its consent; and had decreed that the King's Proclamation should have the force of law (1539). It destroyed the ancient and carefully protected safeguards of liberty and justice, by extending the crime of treason to innumerable new offences, and by passing *Acts of Attainder*, which condemned to death without reference to the Courts of Justice those who successively fell under the royal displeasure. Cromwell's instrument was now turned against himself. Quickly Parliament passed a Bill condemning him to death; and so this daring and unscrupulous minister perished by the death that so many of his enemies had suffered.



**THE TOWER OF LONDON IN THE 16TH CENTURY.**



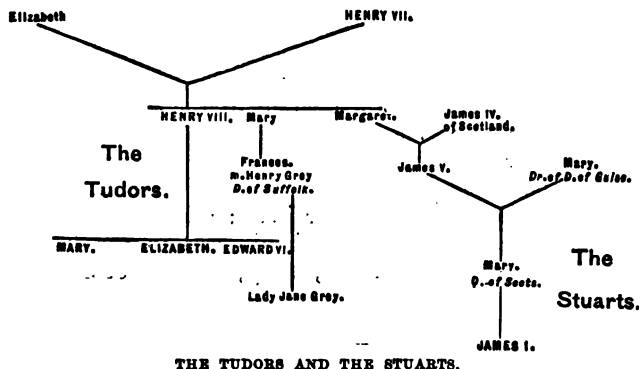
**15. Fifth and Sixth Marriages.**—Anne of Cleves was sent back to Germany, and soon afterwards Henry married Catharine Howard, the niece of Cromwell's enemy, the Duke of Norfolk. Soon afterwards she was sent to the block on the charge of loving another, and beheaded (1542). The king's next wife, Catharine Parr, was fortunate enough to outlive him.

**16. War with Scotland (1542).**—Henry soon afterwards declared war against his nephew, the King of Scotland, and sent the Duke of Norfolk into that country with a large army. The Scotch troops were seized with a panic, caused by the appearance of a small body of the English, and fled without striking a blow—a national disgrace, which broke the heart of James, who died soon afterwards. His infant daughter, Mary Stuart, was crowned, and the Government fell into the hands of Cardinal Beaton, an able and resolute statesman, who attempted, with the aid of France, to continue the struggle, but without success; for though a plot, organised by his enemies in Scotland, to murder him, of which Henry seems to have had knowledge, came to nothing, yet Edinburgh was taken and partly burnt by the English, who ravaged the south of Scotland far and wide with the utmost cruelty. In 1546 the plot was renewed. Beaton, who was hated by the common people for his persecution of the Protestants, was murdered in his own castle; and the Scotch, deprived of a leader against the English, gladly accepted terms of peace.

**17. War with France (1544).**—The friendship between France and Scotland had compelled Henry to declare war against Francis I. as well. In alliance with Charles, he invaded France, but confined himself to an attack on Boulogne, whereupon the emperor, disgusted at the small help his friend gave him, concluded peace with France; and two years later,

Henry, finding that Francis in turn was disposed to threaten England, was glad to conclude peace after Francis had promised to pay a large sum of money, part of which was to be a perpetual pension to England.

18. **Growth of Protestantism.**—Meanwhile the new religious doctrines were slowly prevailing in England, in spite of the persecutions instigated by Gardiner, the cruel Bishop of London, who had succeeded to Norfolk's influence with the king. Queen Catharine favoured the Protestants; but Anne Askew, a lady of her



household, was tried for her beliefs, and suffered bravely at the stake, refusing to betray the names of those who were of the same religion. Cranmer, too, found himself in danger. On the other hand, the queen's party, with Edward Seymour, Earl of Hertford—the brother of the dead Queen Jane—at its head, protected the Protestant cause as far as they were able, and the Church service was now read in English.

19. **Death of Henry VIII (1547).**—For some time it had been seen that the end of this long reign was at hand. Henry had grown very fat, and his

health was evidently failing. The doubt as to his successor caused the parties of the Protestant Hertford and the Catholic Norfolk to plot vigorously one against the other. In the end Hertford defeated his rival; for by persuading the dying king that Norfolk's son, the Earl of Surrey, was aiming at the throne, he procured the execution of the latter; and Norfolk himself was committed to the Tower, though the death of the stern king caused the council to recall the order for his death. With his six wives Henry had but three children—Mary, whose mother was Catharine; Elizabeth, who was the daughter of Anne Boleyn; and Edward, the son of Jane Seymour. The Catholic party denied the legitimacy of Elizabeth and of Edward, but Parliament had left it to the king to settle the succession. He appointed that Edward should reign after him, that if Edward had no children, he should be succeeded by Mary and her issue, and Mary again by Elizabeth and her issue; and failing them, that the Crown of England should pass to the descendants of his youngest sister, Mary, Duchess of Suffolk.

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## CHAPTER XII.

THE REIGN OF EDWARD VI. (1547—1553).

1. **Protectorate of Somerset** (1547—1549).—Edward VI. was but a boy of ten years old; and his uncle, the Earl of Hertford, who now became Duke of Somerset, was made *Lord Protector* of England. The tyrannical Acts as to proclamations and treasons, extorted by Henry from Parliament, were at once abolished.

2. **The Protestants.**—The Protector—an earnest

and enterprising man—was a sincere friend of the Protestants, and he educated the young king in the new religion. The ancient laws against the Lollards, and



EDWARD VI. (B. 1537 ; D. 1553).

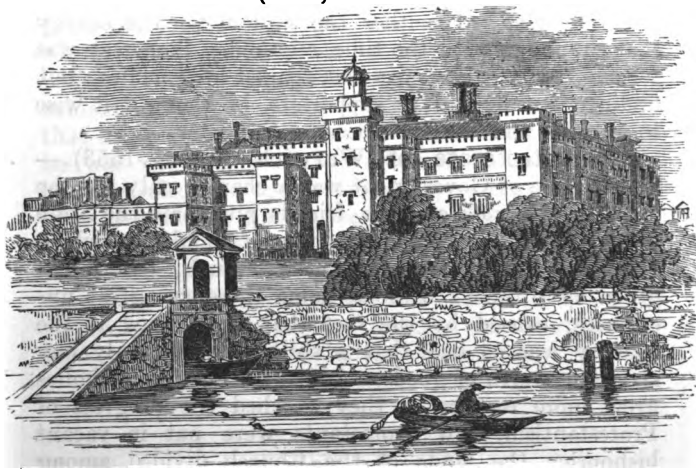
the *Six Articles* of Henry, were repealed. Priests were permitted to marry. The Communion Service was now read everywhere in English, and soon afterwards the Book of Common Prayer was published. Pictures

and images in churches were forbidden ; and in many parts of England the people went in large bodies to the churches, pulled down images, and broke the glass windows. Furthermore, by order of Somerset, Bonner and Gardiner, the Bishops of London and Winchester, who were the chief authors of the persecutions of the former reign, were put in prison, and Parliament handed over more of the Church property in England to the king. The Catholics, therefore, from the first hated the Protector.

**3. War with Scotland (1547).**—Meanwhile the impetuous Somerset had succeeded in spoiling all Henry's plans with regard to Scotland, which country had, since the death of Cardinal Beaton, been governed by a party who were disposed to be friendly to England. Henry had wished to marry his son Edward to Mary, the young Queen of Scots. But the Protector, wishing to push on the Reformation in Scotland, managed to interfere so much in Scotch affairs that war was declared, and then, at the head of a fine army, invaded Scotland. He defeated the Scotch with great loss at *Pinkie*, but was obliged soon after to retreat from the wasted country. The infuriated Scots promptly made a close alliance with France ; the little Queen Mary was betrothed to the heir of the French king, and sent over to Paris to be educated (1548). It seemed, indeed, as if, through Somerset's haste, Scotland would become subject to France.

**4. General Discontent.**—The discontent against Somerset grew from day to day. Great bands of beggars roamed about the country refusing to do any work. They were suppressed, and Somerset, who had great pity for the miserable condition of the poor, sent a body of gentlemen through the country to make a report as to the evils from which they suffered. In spite of his good intentions, Somerset had to contend

first with one difficulty and then with another. His brother, Lord Seymour, a very violent man, had married Henry's widow, and was evidently plotting against him. He was at once seized, *attainted* by Parliament, and executed. Because he was not given a chance of defending himself, Somerset was held responsible for his brother's death (1549).



TUDOR ARCHITECTURE : OLD SOMERSET HOUSE,  
BUILT BY THE PROTECTOR.

**5. Rebellions.**—An outbreak in Devonshire followed. The country people disliked the reformed doctrines, and were indignant at the changes which were imposed on them by law. They advanced on Exeter, and it was not until after some delay that the royal troops relieved the town, and sternly put down the disturbance. In the east of England the rebels, under a tanner named Ket, formed an orderly camp near Norwich, whence parties issued to forage, and take

prisoners the gentry of the neighbourhood. This rebellion also grew to a dangerous extent, but was at last suppressed by the Earl of Warwick, a son of Dudley, the wicked minister of Henry VII.

**6. Fall of Somerset (1549).**—Warwick returned to London in triumph. Nor was it long before he had gained over nearly all the Council to his side, who felt that Somerset had neither the wisdom nor the energy that the dangers of the time required. Somerset was furious, and tried to raise war against his enemies; but finding that he had no supporters, he thought it wise to submit, and Warwick became Protector.

**7. Protectorate of Warwick (1549—1553).**—The change of Government was a change only for the worse. Warwick and his friends plundered the State to enrich themselves. The town of Boulogne, which had long been pressed by the French, had to be given up to them; while at home there was great uneasiness, caused by the fact that the money in the country was so bad that a shilling would only buy six-pennyworth of goods. Added to this, the Catholics grew more restless as they watched the progress of Protestantism, how Protestants were put in vacant bishoprics, the lands of the Church divided among the nobles, and stone altars replaced by wooden tables. Cranmer drew up forty-two *Articles of Religion* to fix the doctrines of the Church, which, reduced in number to thirty-nine, are still observed. Meanwhile the young king's health was failing, and the council tried to force his sister, the Princess Mary, who was heir to the throne, to give up the Roman Catholic form of worship. The princess appealed for help to her cousin, Charles V., and Charles threatened to invade England.

**8. Death of Somerset (1552).**—Somerset accordingly resolved to attempt, by a bold stroke, to recover his former power; but his plans were betrayed to his

enemies. The unfortunate man had fallen into the hands of those who would show him no mercy. He was condemned on very doubtful charges, and, early in 1552, suffered death, to the great sorrow of the people of England, who knew that, with all his faults, the Protector was their true friend, and loved him well.

**9. Death of Edward (1553).**—Warwick was now Duke of Northumberland. He was without a rival, having destroyed all his enemies, and had only to prepare against the young king's death, which was evidently at hand. The unscrupulous statesman knew that he had made an enemy of the Princess Mary, and he was not sure of the Princess Elizabeth, therefore he persuaded the young king to pass them both over and to name as his successor his cousin, Lady Jane Grey, the grand-daughter of Henry VIII.'s sister, Mary, Duchess of Suffolk. Warwick had married his son, Lord Guildford Dudley, to the Lady Jane, and meant to rule in her name. Scarcely were Northumberland's plans complete, when the young king died.

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## CHAPTER XIII.

### THE RESTORATION OF THE OLD RELIGION.

**1. Lady Jane Grey.**—Forthwith Northumberland caused Lady Jane Grey to be proclaimed Queen of England. She was a very gentle and learned lady, and had herself no desire for the throne. Her cause was lost from the first. The Londoners received their new sovereign with dogged silence; and soon difficulties surrounded the Government on all sides. Mary was certain of the support of Charles V., who now ruled over the greatest empire since that of Charlemagne. The nation wished to be rid of Northumberland, and was



determined not to re-open the civil strife that had been ended seventy years before by the battle of Bosworth. The nobles and powerful men all joined Mary; while from Cheshire and Devonshire came news of risings in her favour. Northumberland's heart failed him, his own men refused to fight, and he was seized and thrown into the Tower. There he displayed the utmost cowardice, and abjured the Protestant religion in vain hopes of pardon.

2. **Queen Mary** (1553—1558).—Meanwhile Queen Mary was received in London with great joy, and at once re-established the Roman Catholic worship. Bonner and Gardiner returned to power, the Catholic service was restored, and the clergy were forbidden to marry. With the rise of his rivals, Cranmer of course fell, and he was sent to the Tower. So far the changes introduced by Queen Mary were popular, but the queen was meditating the restoration of all the old power of the Popes over England.

3. **The Spanish Marriage**.—Soon after her coronation, Mary resolved to marry Philip of Spain, the son of Charles the Great, Emperor of Germany, to whom the greater part of his father's vast dominions was to be given. The announcement was, however, by no means well received in England. In the first place, many thought that England would become a mere province of Spain, at any rate that it would have to take part in wars where little profit could be derived, while the Protestants resolved to resist with the utmost vigour such a close connection with Spain, the most bigoted and intolerant of all the Catholic powers.

4. **Protestant Rebellion**.—The Protestants turned to the Princess Elizabeth. It was resolved to raise a rebellion, and to place the princess on the throne, after which she was to marry her relation, Edward Courtenay, Earl of Devon, whose father, the Marquis of Exeter,

had been beheaded by Henry. Unfortunately, Courtenay—a foolish young man, who had been for many years a prisoner in the Tower—divulged the plot before it was ripe, and most of the risings failed miserably. Sir Thomas Wyatt, however, with the men of Kent behind him, advanced on London, and for a moment the danger of the capital was extreme. But Mary, with unconquerable courage, called the loyal citizens about her, promised never to marry unless Parliament permitted it, and the brave Londoners stood by her stoutly. As Wyatt's disorderly forces approached the city, they were cut off from their leader by the queen's men, while he, in desperation, pushed on with a mere handful of followers into the middle of the city, and was there taken prisoner.



LADY JANE GREY (B. 1537; D. 1554).

**5. Mary's Vengeance.**—Many of the rebels were hanged, and Mary resolved to rid herself of Lady Jane Grey, for in such critical times no rival to the throne could be permitted to live. Most of the chiefs of Northumberland's rebellion had been kept in prison, and they were now taken out to die. After her husband had been executed, Lady Jane, who was only seventeen, went forth to suffer death, meeting her fate

with great courage and piety, and great was the pity felt for the sweet young girl who had been cruelly deceived by the selfish Northumberland. The Princess Elizabeth had a narrow escape. She was sent to prison, and Sir Thomas Wyatt was cruelly tortured, in order to wring from him some confession that she was concerned in the plot. But the stout rebel refused to disclose any secrets, and suffered death for his faithfulness.

**6. Marriage with Philip (1554).**—The consent of Parliament to her marriage was easily obtained, and in 1554 Philip arrived. The queen was now wildly in love with him, but he finding that his wife was some years older than himself, and by no means attractive, soon got tired of her, and began to hate the English people, who in turn disliked him for his cold, proud manners.

**7. Submission to the Pope.**—The reconciliation with Rome was pressed hastily on. Cardinal Pole, whose mother had been executed by Henry, came to England as the Pope's ambassador, and received the submission of England, although Parliament insisted that the Church lands should be allowed to remain in the hands of their present possessors. And now began those terrible persecutions to which Mary was urged on by her stern counsellor, Bishop Gardiner, and which have caused her name to be one of the most hateful in English history. Rowland Taylor, Hooper, Bishop of Gloucester, and Rogers, prebend of St. Paul's, were the first of the long line of martyrs whose noble lives and brave deaths did more to establish the new religion in England than all the laws of Henry and Edward.

**8. Departure of Philip (1555).**—Shortly afterwards Philip said farewell to his wife, who was broken-hearted at his departure, and because she had no child to whom she might transfer a part of her great love.

But Philip's father, the emperor, was weary of the world, and resolved to give up his great dominions to



QUEEN MARY (B. 1516; D. 1558).

his successors, of which the greater part, including Spain and Holland and the New World, fell to Philip.

**9. Persecution of the Protestants.**—After the departure of Philip, Mary continued the persecutions with even greater severity than before. At Oxford, Ridley and Latimer were bound to the same stake, and died “playing the men,” as Latimer said, to the very last. Then Archbishop Cranmer, the man who had done more than any other to establish Protestant doctrines in England—whom Mary hated, because he had declared that Henry’s marriage with her mother, Catharine of Spain, was unlawful—was tried for heresy. Cranmer, all through his life, was a very weak man, and now, in hope of saving his life, he renounced in writing the reformed doctrines. But submission did not avail him, for he had been condemned by the Pope, and his enemies resolved to triumph. Before he went to the stake, the degraded archbishop was taken into the church of St. Mary’s at Oxford and told to make a public confession of his faith in the doctrines of the Roman Church. But at the last moment his courage returned, he declared that what he had written of late was contrary to his real belief, and that he now retracted such opinions. Nor did his heart fail him as the flames rose around, for he held out the hand that wrote the confession so that it “suffered just punishment,” and thus by a noble death atoned for his cowardly compliance in the wicked designs of his superiors during life (1556).

**10. War with France (1557).**—Other deeds of cruelty followed. Many noble young Englishmen, who were suspected of a conspiracy to place the Princess Elizabeth on the throne, fled to France, where the king, Henry II., was involved in disputes with Mary’s husband Philip. Philip dragged his wife into his war. A French expedition was sent to the north of England, which was speedily crushed. At first the allies, England and Spain, were successful. Philip’s

great general, Philibert of Savoy, defeated the French at *St. Quentin*. But when the Duke of Guise took command of the French army, the fortunes of the war changed. Having carefully arranged his plans beforehand, he made a dash on Calais, the fortifications of which were in much need of repair. Without men or provisions, Sir Thomas Wentworth, the governor, could do nothing, and in a few days this town, which had been the pride of the English since the days of Edward I., was snatched from their grasp.

11. **Death of Mary** (1558).—Shortly after this Mary died, after a life of great unhappiness. For many years she had been weighed down by sickness—she mourned for the loss of Calais and for her husband's neglect. She saw that, in spite of persecutions, the new faith could not be rooted out from England, and that her severity made her hateful to the nation.

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## CHAPTER XIV.

### THE RIVAL QUEENS.

1. **Accession of Elizabeth**.—The new reign (1558—1603) proved in many respects the most glorious in English history. For in those days our sailors, in their little vessels, sailed bravely forth to discover new lands, or to destroy the great treasure-ships of Spain. The united power of Philip, the Popes, and the French Catholics could not overcome this little island. Our merchants, too, made England rich and prosperous, and laws were then first made for the maintenance of the poor, whom age or disease rendered unable to support themselves. This, again, was the age of four of our greatest writers: the poet Spenser, the dramatist Shakespeare, the philosopher Bacon, and Hooker, the



B. 1533.

D. 1603.

Elizabeth

**PORTRAIT AND AUTOGRAPH OF QUEEN ELIZABETH.**

learned divine. Nevertheless, there seemed every prospect when the young queen ascended the throne that her rule would be by no means fortunate. She was involved in a disastrous war with France; Mary Stuart, grand-daughter of Henry VIII.'s sister Margaret of Scotland, had set up claims to the English throne, maintaining, as every Roman Catholic did, that Elizabeth was illegitimate; the Government was in debt, and the country divided in its religious opinions. However, with the help of her great minister, Robert Cecil, Elizabeth vigorously began to raise England from the position to which she had sunk.

2. **The State of Europe.**—The Reformation had now divided Europe into two hostile camps—the Catholic and the Protestant. Spain was the chief champion of the Papacy, and of the Inquisition which it set up wherever the State allowed it, for the secret detection and punishment of heresy. Portugal trod in the footsteps of Spain, to which it was for a time annexed. The empire was divided. By the *Treaty of Passau* (1552) Charles had consented to the exercise of the Reformed religion in the Protestant States. France was still trembling in the balance. The Huguenots, as the Protestants were called, were numerous and powerful, and for many years they resisted by force the efforts of the kings to suppress their faith. In the Netherlands the same deadly struggle was impending. They had been annexed to Spain since the accession of Charles V., and Spain was determined to uproot their liberties and their religion.

3. **Philip II.**—Philip of Spain at first supported Elizabeth, and proposed himself as her husband, fearing that the accession of Mary Stuart would unite Scotland and England under his enemy the French king. Elizabeth, however, declined his offers, and made a peace with Henry II.



4. **The Church.**—The settlement of the religious difficulty was by no means so easy. Elizabeth inclined, like her father, to the Roman worship; but the Pope's denial of her legitimacy compelled her to depend on the Protestants, and to exclude the Pope's Supremacy in England, while Mary's persecution had made the old religion most unpopular. Elizabeth was declared Supreme over the Church, as her father had been before her, and the Prayer-Book was imposed on every congregation as the only legal form of public worship. This produced great uneasiness among the bishops, almost all of whom resigned their offices, and were replaced by others of more Protestant opinions.

5. **Mary of Scotland.**—These two questions disposed of, there remained the Scotch difficulty, which troubled Elizabeth during the first thirty years of her reign, and was settled only by the death of her rival, Mary Stuart. It will be remembered that Mary had been sent to France, where she married the eldest son of Henry II., a sickly boy, who in 1559 became King of France under the title of Francis II. Meanwhile the government of Scotland was being conducted by the queen-mother, Mary of Guise, who did not understand the Scotch people, and relied on the advice of her French relations.

6. **Reformation in Scotland.**—The reformed doctrines had made great progress in Scotland, especially among the nobles, and when Mary began to persecute its followers, the nobles joined themselves together under a solemn *Covenant*, by which they swore to maintain the truth.

7. About this time there arrived in Scotland a disciple of Calvin, the famous Swiss Reformer. This was John Knox, who had been a prisoner in France, whence he had with difficulty escaped. Now he came back to his native land, full of belief in the truth of

what he taught, and gifted with a ready eloquence which few could withstand. Under his guidance, many of the old churches of Scotland were dismantled, the queen-mother, who had tried to deceive the Protestants, was deposed, and finally they applied for help to Elizabeth against the French troops by which Mary of Guise was supported.

8. **Elizabeth Intervenes** (1560).—Now Elizabeth hated Knox, and she did not approve of subjects rising against their rulers. However, she sent the English fleet to aid the nobles, but was much relieved when all the French troops were recalled to France, on account of the war between Protestants and Catholics in that country. Shortly afterwards the Regent died, and Protestantism became the national religion of Scotland.

9. **Return of Mary** (1561).—On the death of Francis II., Mary Stuart came back to Scotland; and, though much disgusted with the rough manners of her subjects, she showed no disposition to become the friend of Elizabeth, which she could only have done by giving up her claim to the English throne. Soon, in order to spite her rival, Mary married her cousin, Lord Henry Darnley, who had himself a claim to the English throne, and was, moreover, looked on as the leader of the English Catholics. She then entered into close alliance with Philip of Spain, and thus brought England into collision with the most powerful nation in Europe.

10. **Breach with Darnley**.—Had Mary's marriage turned out well, it is probable that she must, in the end, have succeeded Elizabeth. But Darnley proved an idle and worthless man, and the queen's love soon turned to hate. Ere long Darnley saw cause to be jealous of the queen's secretary, an Italian, named Rizzio, who had acquired great influence over her. So,

in company with several lords, whom he had attracted by profuse promises, Darnley entered the palace of Holyrood, seized Rizzio in the queen's chamber, and murdered him on the stairs, in spite of the queen's entreaties. With deep cunning, Mary concealed her desire for revenge, summoned Darnley to her side, and pretended again to be fond of him.



HOLYROOD PALACE.

**11. Intrigue with Bothwell.**—Meanwhile she gathered her friends around her, chief among whom were the Earls of Huntley and Bothwell. With the latter the queen had fallen violently in love; he became Lord High Admiral of Scotland, and the owner of large districts of land. The birth of her son James at this time, by securing the succession to the Scotch throne, made Mary much stronger than she had been before.

**12. Murder of Darnley (1567).**—Bothwell readily fell in with the queen's plans, and collected a body of nobles, with whom he formed a plot to murder Darnley,

who at this time was very ill. Darnley was hurried to a lonely house, called Kirk o' Field, where Mary came to visit him, and treated him with every sign of affection. But in the evening, after her departure, a loud explosion was heard, the house fell in ruins, and the body of Darnley—who had apparently tried to escape—was found in the garden.

**13. Marriage with Bothwell.**—So brutal a deed aroused disgust in all classes of the nation. However, Bothwell with his soldiers overawed Edinburgh; a mock trial was instituted, at which Bothwell was acquitted. Then he persuaded some of the nobles to sign a bond recommending Mary to accept him as her husband, seized her, and took her, without any resistance on her part, to his castle of Dunbar. His own wife was divorced from him, and he married Queen Mary.

**14. Fall of Bothwell.**—The Scotch nobles were furious at the insolence of the man, and at once raised troops to crush him. Bothwell and the queen could find no support, and on Carberry Hill, near Dunbar, were compelled to surrender without striking a blow. Bothwell was allowed to make his escape to Denmark, where he turned pirate.

**15. Captivity of Mary (1567).**—The miserable queen was taken to Edinburgh, where the furious crowd clamoured for her life. She was sent as a prisoner to Lochleven Castle. By the wise advice of her half-brother, Lord Murray, who, during the late troubles, had withdrawn to France, Mary was compelled to abdicate in favour of her young son, James VI., and the government of the nation was placed in Murray's hands.

**16. Escape to England (1568).**—After a time Mary managed to make her escape from Lochleven Castle to Hamilton, where her followers joined her in considerable numbers. But Murray showed equal

activity, and, throwing his forces across her path, forced the ex-queen to give battle at Langside. Mary's troops fled, and seeing that all was lost, she hurried across the English frontier, and rode to Carlisle, where she besought Elizabeth for protection.

**17. Difficulties of Elizabeth.**—Elizabeth was at her wits' end to know what to do. She could not treat Mary with severity, for fear of Philip of Spain, who had now apparently succeeded, by means of his reckless general, the Duke of Alva, in subduing the revolt of his Protestant subjects in Holland, and would therefore be at leisure to help his ally; she dared not let her go to France; nor could she well attempt to persuade the Scotch nobles to receive back so unworthy a queen; while she knew that the Catholic nobles of England would at once gather round Mary if she remained in England.

**18. Mary Imprisoned.**—Murray produced his proofs of Mary's crimes at a conference at York; but still Elizabeth hesitated. Finally Mary, who desired to be heard before her in person, was kept on as a prisoner at Bolton Abbey.

**19. The Norfolk Plot (1569).**—Meanwhile the Catholic cause was everywhere growing stronger. In spite of the money sent them from England, Elizabeth was grieved to see that the Huguenots, or Protestants, in France were getting worsted; while Philip of Spain was ready at any moment to declare war against this country. The Catholic nobles in England naturally thought that the hour for the restoration of their religion had come. Their plan was to marry Mary to the Duke of Norfolk, a Catholic, and chief of the English nobles; and, with the help of Spanish arms, to overthrow the Government, and Cecil, Elizabeth's greatest minister. But Norfolk, a foolish man, could not keep silent; the plan came to the queen's ears; he

was arrested, but not before the nobles of the north had risen in his favour, and many of their miserable followers had been put to death.

**20. War in Scotland.**—The leaders of the revolt—the Earls of Northumberland and Westmoreland—fled into Scotland, where the Regent Murray attempted to arrest them. The result was that their Catholic friends murdered Murray, who had long been unpopular; and once more Scotland had to submit to the horrors of civil war, while Elizabeth dared not give strength to the party of the young King James by acknowledging him as her heir.

**21. Ridolfi's Plot (1570).**—Dangers now began to threaten England from all sides. The queen was excommunicated by the stern Pope, Pius V. In self-defence she, in turn, passed severe laws against the English Catholics, who became very restless. The plot for marrying Mary to Norfolk was revived, and a Florentine banker, named Ridolfi, acquainted Alva in Holland, Philip in Spain, and the Pope with the secret. As usual, the crafty secretary, Cecil, was not long in getting some insight into the conspiracy. Some of Ridolfi's letters to Norfolk were intercepted. The feeble duke was tried, condemned, and, after considerable hesitation on the part of the queen, was put to death (1572). But Elizabeth would allow no steps for the present to be taken against Mary.

**22. Overtures to France.**—The enmity of Philip of Spain to England caused Elizabeth to turn to France. A marriage was proposed between her and the Duke of Alençon, a younger brother of the French king, Charles IX., who, besides being much younger than the queen, was hideously ugly and very vicious. Elizabeth pretended to be in love with him, and even made a half-promise that she would join the French in driving the Spaniards from Holland.

But all hopes of a close friendship with France were destroyed by an act of terrible treachery on the part of the French Government. There the Catholics, headed by the Guises, who were Mary Stuart's relations, had got the upper hand, and now persuaded Catherine, the king's mother, to join them in the atrocious Massacre of St. Bartholomew's Day. The mob of Paris, urged on by the Guises at their head, murdered all their Protestant fellow-subjects whom they could find, to the number of some 25,000 (1572).

23. Elizabeth was at first horror-struck at the news. She determined to oppose the Catholic powers, France and Spain, with all her might, to deliver Mary to her enemies in Scotland, and send abundant help to the Dutch in their struggle with Spain. In the end she did nothing; while the Catholic party in France joined with Philip II. in *The League* for the universal extirpation of Protestantism (1576).

24. **Conformity Enforced.**—The *Penal Laws* against the Catholics, compelling them to attend their parish church, were now sternly enforced; and partly in her anxiety that the Church should not depart further from the ancient worship, partly in a mistaken endeavour to knit the whole nation together in the face of the dangers which encompassed it, Elizabeth also rigorously suppressed the Puritans and Protestants who desired the *Further Reformation* of the Church of England.

25. **Difficulties in Ireland.**—The activity of the Catholics threatened also the dominion of the English in Ireland. There the Protestant religion had been forced on an unwilling people, and upheld by arms. The Catholic priests were driven to the mountains, whither their faithful flocks followed them; and clergy of the English Church were appointed to their livings, who in many cases could not speak a word of

the Irish language. The country was always ripe for a rebellion, and it was with difficulty that the English could maintain any order in the distracted country. An attempt to plant an English colony in Munster, on the lands of the Fitzgeralds, was the cause of a fresh outbreak. Their chief, the Earl of Desmond, was confined in an English prison on a charge of treason, and so his brother Fitzmaurice became leader of the rebellion. At first Sir Henry Sidney (the English governor) could with difficulty maintain his ground; the great family of the Ormonds refused to join him. Fitzmaurice, however, failed to obtain the help he expected from Philip of Spain, and the war continued ineffectually, both sides behaving with the most disgusting brutality.

**26. Dutch War of Independence.**—Meanwhile the Spaniards found that they could make no real impression on the brave Dutch Protestants, who had now sworn to expel them from their country. Philip's half-brother, Don John of Austria, one of the greatest generals of the age, undertook to pacify the Dutch, and then conquer England and marry Mary Stuart; but fever carried him off in 1578, and the southern provinces of Holland soon afterwards endeavoured to secure French support by inviting the Duke of Alençon to become their sovereign.

**27. William the Silent (1568—1584).**—At this juncture William of Orange, called the Silent, was accepted as leader by the northern provinces, and took up the struggle with the new Spanish commander, Alexander Farnese, Duke of Parma. He made common cause with Coligny, the leader of the Huguenots in France; and, finding the Spanish troops too powerful to be defeated in the field, persuaded the Dutch Protestants to open the dykes which kept out the ocean, and thus forced the invaders to draw back (1574).



The Dutch then offered to place themselves under Elizabeth ; but she declined a sovereignty which would have compelled her to wage war with Spain on foreign soil (1575). Alençon's attempt on the south was the most utter failure. Elizabeth, indeed, thinking at first that he would succeed, resumed her flirtation with him, much to the disgust of the English, and invited her "Frog," as she called him, over to England. But his Dutch subjects did not give him enough liberty. Discovering that he intended to seize the town of Antwerp, they ejected him from their country, not without violence. The southern provinces, which corresponded roughly to the modern Belgium, were ultimately subdued for Spain by the Duke of Parma (1579), but in 1581 the *United Provinces* of the north, which till now had been fighting only to secure their ancient liberties from their sovereign Philip, formally declared themselves independent.

**28. The Throgmorton Plot.**—Meanwhile, in England the Catholic conspirators grew still more active. In Ireland Fitzmaurice rose in wild revolt, but was conquered and slain ; and in Scotland a young adventurer was sent by the Guises to win back, if possible, the young king to the French alliance ; but the nobles drove him out. Priests came over secretly from the Continent, and found shelter in the houses of the great nobles, who were irritated by recent laws which forced them to attend Protestant churches, and forbade them to admit Catholic priests into their dwellings. The chief of these conspirators was Francis Throgmorton, who wished to have Elizabeth murdered, and Mary Stuart placed on the English throne. He corresponded vigorously with the Guises in France, and through the Spanish ambassador with Philip of Spain. A plan for the invasion of England was prepared—in fact, everything was nearly complete

—when Throgmorton was arrested by the ever-watchful secretary, Walsingham, and was executed (1584). The Spanish ambassador was promptly dismissed for his treachery—an insult which Philip did not readily forgive, though the cunning policy of Elizabeth still kept off actual warfare. This plot naturally aroused the loyalty of all Englishmen, and when the news arrived shortly afterwards that Philip's offer of a great reward for the murder of William of Orange had at last ended in his assassination (1584), an *Association* was formed among her loving subjects for the protection of the life of the queen.

29. **Dutch Campaign** (1585).—The Dutch had suffered a great loss in the death of William the Silent. Antwerp itself was in imminent danger of falling before the Duke of Parma. The Dutch, therefore, in despair, offered their crown to Elizabeth. But it was only after much indecision that she sent some troops to Holland under the Earl of Leicester, whom in her younger days the queen had much wished to marry. Leicester, who was no general, could do nothing against the Duke of Parma, and soon it began to be whispered about that the queen was making secret promises to the Spaniards. At any rate, Leicester, who had done nothing but blunder since his arrival in Holland, returned to England in 1586, having failed ingloriously to take the town of Zutphen.

30. **Execution of Mary** (1587).—In revenge for her son's desertion of her, Mary now declared Philip of Spain heir to her claims on the crowns of Scotland and England, and began again to conspire against the life of Elizabeth. The plot was now in the hands of a young Catholic named Babington. Sir Francis Walsingham soon penetrated, by means of his spies, into these designs. Babington was seized and executed, and Mary was hurried to Fotheringay Castle,

and there put on her trial. In spite of her protestations of innocence, the evidence was conclusive against her, and she was condemned to death. It was a long time before Elizabeth could be brought to consent to the execution of one who was her nearest



MARY QUEEN OF SCOTS (B. 1542; D. 1587).

relation, and whose death would cause the kingdoms of France and Spain to unite against England. Yet while Mary lived, men had a powerful inducement to assassinate Elizabeth. At length the queen signed the warrant, and Mary's guilty and unfortunate career was ended by her execution.

## CHAPTER XV.

## THE ENGLISH ISLAND AND THE SPANISH EMPIRE.

1. **The Spanish Armada** (1588).—For years Philip had been fitting out a great expedition to reduce England under the authority of himself and the Papacy, and the execution of Mary brought matters to a crisis. Sir Francis Drake, the most daring of sea-rovers, made a dash at Cadiz, and effectually “singd King Philip’s beard,” as he said, by burning some fifty of his vessels. Nevertheless, early in 1588 his “*Invincible Armada*” put to sea, consisting of a hundred and thirty ships, with twenty thousand soldiers on board, while the Duke of Parma in Holland was expected to contribute seventeen thousand more.

2. Elizabeth had hoped to the last to avert war with Spain, and her parsimony had allowed the navy to become very inefficient. It was the generous contributions of nobles and gentlemen of England, and the loyalty of our sailors, who consented to serve with little provisions and no pay, that enabled the Government to collect a fleet of some eighty vessels, much smaller indeed than the huge Spanish vessels, but faster and far more skilfully handled.

3. Late in July the huge Spanish galleons came sailing up the English Channel. Our admiral, Lord Howard of Effingham, allowed them to pass him, and then hung about their rear, cutting off the stragglers, and pouring in well-directed broadsides from close quarters. The disorganised Armada was compelled to seek refuge in Calais harbour, and Lord Howard promptly sent fire-ships among them—old vessels filled with gunpowder and pitch, which could be set alight by a long fuze. Thereupon the Spaniards fled in terror, and made, in much confusion, for the coast of

Flanders, where Lord Howard bombarded them as long as his ammunition lasted. Ship after ship sank or was driven ashore. A terrible storm completed the disaster which our sailors had begun. The vessels of Spain fled through the northern seas, driven on by the furious wind; many sank in mid-ocean, and others were wrecked on the rocks of Scotland and Ireland. The Spanish admiral, the Duke of Medina-Sidonia, was able to bring back only fifty-three shattered ships of all that brave armament which had sailed four months before.

4. **Revenge on Spain** (1589—1603).—It was now war to the knife between England and the huge empire of Spain. England, henceforth in no danger from abroad, attacked the unwieldy empire at every vulnerable point. An expedition to deliver Portugal from Philip failed (1589), but upon the assassination of Henry III. of France, Elizabeth supported the claims of the Protestant Henry of Navarre to the throne, to keep out the Catholic candidates put forward by Philip. Year after year, English fleets, under brave captains, such as Sir John Hawkins and Sir Francis Drake, sailed forth from English harbours, waylaid the Spanish treasure-ships on their voyage from America, and hunted down and destroyed the Spaniards wherever on the wide seas they caught sight of their sails. A greater man than these, Sir Walter Raleigh, aimed at wresting from Philip altogether his dominions in the New World, and led the earliest band of English colonists to take possession of *Virginia*, as the colony was called, in honour of their Virgin Queen. The dashing young Earl of Essex also, who had become the queen's favourite in place of Leicester, who had died (1588), perpetually urged Elizabeth to crush for ever the power of Spain, and conducted several expeditions against the rich city of Cadiz, whence he brought back much spoil.

**5. Struggle between Crown and Parliament Begins.**—At home, however, there were still several causes of uneasiness. Parliament was gradually recovering from the subserviency to which Henry VIII. had reduced it; while Elizabeth claimed all his authority, as Head of Church and State, and in particular denied the right of Parliament to interfere in questions of religion, of foreign policy, and of trade. These matters she claimed to manage as she chose, and rewarded her favourites by granting them monopolies of certain branches of commerce. When the Commons resisted, she overrode their privileges and threatened their debates, and twice sent their bold spokesman, Peter Wentworth, to the Tower (1576, 1588).

**6. The Puritans.**—The Puritans, the ancestors of English Nonconformists, grew yearly more influential, and were in close alliance with the champions of Parliament. They objected to many practices retained in the Church as being unauthorised by Scripture, and demanded the *Further Reformation* of the Church of England. They were compelled, however, like the Catholics, to go to church, and had suffered much unjust persecution at the hands of Archbishop Whitgift. Their leader, Cartwright, had stoutly protested against this treatment, and they were now busy writing paper after paper against the authority of the bishops. Moreover, Burleigh died (1598), and there arose rival parties in the queen's council, one headed by Robert Cecil, and the other by Essex.

**7. Tyrone's Rebellion (1597—1601).**—Meanwhile, though Philip had died (1598), the strife between England and the unwieldy Empire of Spain did not cease. Encouraged by Spain, the Irish again rose in rebellion under O'Neil, Earl of Tyrone. Essex was sent against him, but instead of doing battle with the insurgents at once, he wasted several months in

the west of Ireland, and then concluded peace with Tyrone on disgraceful terms, and hastened back to England. Elizabeth was very angry at his conduct; he was confined to his house, and deprived of his appointments. The fiery young noble could not endure such degradation, and at once began to plot against Cecil, though not with any design on the life of Elizabeth herself. His designs were detected, and, seeing that all was lost, he marched through London, and tried to persuade the citizens to rise, but not a man would join him. Essex was found guilty of treason,



STATE COACH OF QUEEN ELIZABETH.

and the queen, at the cost of many bitter tears, was forced to sign the warrant for his execution. Tyrone was finally subdued by Lord Mountjoy.

**8. Death of the Queen.**—The last days of “Good Queen Bess” were unhappy; all her old ministers, Burleigh, Walsingham, and others, had died, and the fate of Essex weighed heavily on her mind. Gradually she became very ill, the power of speech deserted her, and she could only, by a motion of the head, express her wish that James VI. of Scotland, the son of her enemy Mary, and great-great-grandson of Henry VII., should succeed her on the throne. On March 24, 1603, she died, in the seventieth year of her age. Thus ended the Tudor dynasty (1485—1603).

## CHAPTER XVI.

## THE CROWN AND THE PARLIAMENT UNDER JAMES I.

1. **James the First** (1603—1625).—James the Sixth of Scotland, and the First of the ill-fated line of Stuart kings in England (1603—1688), was now thirty-seven years old. In person he was awkward, and his appearance was so strange as to excite laughter; his habits were uncleanly; he was very learned, but too fond of making displays of his learning. He was full of great ideas of the dignity of his position as the King of Great Britain and the Head of the Church. He knew nothing of the English Constitution, and imagined himself as absolute as the kings in Jewish history, or as the King of Spain. He claimed the right to decide in Church questions, to levy taxes, to make laws, to dictate to Parliament and to the judges, to control foreign commerce, and direct foreign policy at his will, asserting that all the rights which the nation had acquired proceeded merely from his grace, and existed only during his pleasure. He was known to be easily governed by favourites, and to have great dislike to



JAMES I. DRESSED FOR HAWKING.



opposition. However, James entered England with many fair promises to his new subjects.

**2. Plot against Cecil.**—But he gradually succeeded in offending several important classes of Englishmen. The men, like Sir Walter Raleigh, who were anxious for a continuance of war with Spain, were very disappointed when they found that one of the first acts of the new king was to conclude peace with that country. They promptly combined against the king and Cecil—who, since the fall of Essex, had been chief minister—hoping by the aid of the Catholics to overthrow the minister, and then, by seizing the king's person, to force him to grant their demands. But Cecil possessed all his father's cleverness in detecting conspiracies against the throne. The plotters were seized, and Raleigh, whose share in the design seems to have been slight, was sent to prison, while the less important men were pardoned.

**3. Breach with Puritans.**—The Puritans, too, had presented a petition to him, requesting that the changes they desired might be made in the services of the Church. James was delighted at this opportunity of showing off his learning, and accordingly invited several of the Puritan divines to meet the English bishops at the *Hampton Court Conference* (1604). There the veneration of the bishops for the royal power entirely won James over, the demands of the petitioners were scornfully rejected, and ten of them were imprisoned. "I will make the Puritans conform," said the king, "or I will harry them out of the land."

**4. Parliament Displeased.**—The House of Commons were uneasy at his arbitrary tendencies, and especially at his attempt to nominate members to Parliament, and to overrule their privilege to decide in disputed elections. They protested vigorously against these and other grievances, and they showed their

sympathy with the persecuted Puritans by passing some severe laws against the Catholics. James, in order to pacify them, exacted heavy fines from the followers of that religion, but he gave the money thus collected to his Scotch followers.

5. **The Gunpowder Plot** (1605).—The infuriated Catholics, who had looked for some favour from the son of Mary, grew desperate, and were ready at any moment to rise in arms against the king. A few of them, among whom were Catesby, and Percy, a cousin of the Earl of Northumberland, now devised the famous Gunpowder Plot. They hired a cellar under the Parliament House, which they filled with gunpowder, and on the 5th of November it was proposed to blow up the king



GUIDO FAWKES AND ROBERT CATESBY.  
(From a Contemporary Print.)

and the Commons, and with the aid of Spain to place a Catholic sovereign on the throne. Their vile design was betrayed by Tresham, one of the conspirators, in a mysterious letter to his cousin, Lord Mounteagle; the cellar was discovered, and in it Guy Fawkes, who was to fire the mine. His comrades fled, but were caught and put to death with Fawkes. Cecil's power became greater than ever. The unfortunate Catholics were treated yet more severely, and were deprived of most of the rights of English citizens.

**6. Quarrel with Parliament.**—James was always in want of money: his court was extravagant, and Elizabeth had left large debts behind her. Cecil, knowing he could get little from Parliament, now thoroughly awakened to the king's temper, prorogued it (1608), and, by the king's authority alone, laid taxes on foreign merchandise. The Commons, on reassembling (1610), objected to this in very plain terms, but could obtain no satisfaction. Shortly after, Cecil died (1612), and thenceforward James passed under the influence of unprincipled favourites. A new Parliament was summoned (1614), in the hope that the royal influence might pack it with more submissive men, but it at once voted that the taxes were illegal; so James dissolved it before it could pass a single measure, and committed its leading members to prison.

**7. James and the Kirk.**—Meanwhile James had been renewing his old disputes with the Kirk, or Church of Scotland. John Knox and his successor, Andrew Melville, had condemned the power of bishops in the Church, and James had been forced to abolish that order; but in 1610 he induced the Scotch Estates, or Parliament, to consent to its restoration, though with limited powers. Melville was imprisoned, and James seemed now to have gained a complete victory over those Presbyterians by whom he had been so lectured in his boyhood. Several years later the religious observances which the High Church party had accepted in England, but which the Scotch hated, were forced on the Kirk.

**8. Buckingham in Power (1615—1628).**—The most successful of the royal favourites was a young man called Villiers, who was good-looking, bold, and unscrupulous. Villiers rose rapidly; for, though a vain and greedy courtier, he was not without ability, and soon became Lord High Admiral and Earl of Buckingham.

With the help of this new friend, James attempted to rule without summoning Parliament. The whole foreign policy of Elizabeth and her statesmen was hastily set aside. The Prince of Wales, Charles, was betrothed to a Spanish princess, much to the wrath of the nation, who hated the idea of a Catholic queen.

9. **Death of Raleigh** (1618).—Further, to secure the friendship of Spain, the gallant Sir Walter Raleigh, the boldest and most accomplished of Englishmen, was unjustly put to death. Raleigh, it will be remembered, was put in prison at the beginning of the reign for plotting against the king. At length, weary of long confinement, he obtained release on condition that he would sail to South America in search of a gold mine that was reported to exist on the river Orinoco. On his arrival, however, Raleigh came into collision with the troops of Spain, and was obliged to retreat with loss to his ships. The Spanish ambassador demanded his punishment, and on his return to England he was again arrested on the old charge of conspiracy, and beheaded.

10. **The Thirty Years' War** (1618—1648).—The Protestant and Catholic parties in Germany were now preparing to engage in a contest known as the *Thirty Years' War*. It sprang from the rival claims of a Catholic and a Protestant prince to the vacant throne of Bohemia. The Protestant was Frederick, Elector Palatine—a weak young man, who, having married James's beautiful daughter, the Princess Elizabeth, appealed to England for support. The English nation was zealous in the Protestant cause, but James, himself a half-hearted Protestant, feared to break with Spain. He imagined he could re-establish Frederick by his own influence with the Spanish king, who, on the other hand, as the price of his alliance, demanded the relaxation of the Penal Laws against the English

Catholics. He therefore contented himself with sending a few troops to his son-in-law ; but Frederick was unable to cope with the forces of the Catholics, and was presently driven headlong from his dominions.

11. **Third Parliament (1620).**—James was forced, by need of money, to summon Parliament again. It met in no pleasant temper. Frightened by the success of the Catholics all over Europe, it insisted on the execution of the Penal Laws, which James was relaxing. It refused to give the king any money, and brought several ministers to trial, the greatest of whom was the Lord Chancellor Bacon, who, though one of the wisest of English philosophers and statesmen, was convicted of receiving bribes, and was removed from his office. He retired to write learned books, explaining how the Laws of Nature are to be discovered, which have laid the foundations of modern scientific knowledge. James dissolved Parliament in wrath, several of its boldest members being sent to prison.

12. **Breach with Spain (1623).**—To hasten his marriage with the Spanish princess, Prince Charles and Buckingham themselves went secretly to Madrid. But the violent temper of Buckingham interrupted the negotiations, and the discomfited pair had to return to England. Buckingham, however, at once became the favourite of the people, who were delighted to see the intrigues of the king with Spain broken off. A new Parliament was summoned, which resolved to send help to the Protestant princes of Germany ; and to spite Spain, a marriage for Charles was arranged with the French princess, Henrietta Maria. While these vigorous plans were as yet incomplete, James died, leaving to his son Charles a fatal heritage of difficulty and distrust.

## CHAPTER XVII.

## THE CROWN AND THE PARLIAMENT UNDER CHARLES I.

1. **Charles I.** (1625—1649).—In the reign of Charles I. the struggle between the kings of England and the Parliament ripened rapidly, and resulted in the complete triumph of the latter. We have seen how the resistance of Parliament to royal oppression, which first becomes remarkable in the reign of Elizabeth, had gathered strength under James, who had only avoided a violent quarrel with his subjects by giving way when the Opposition was stronger than usual, and especially by surrendering unpopular ministers to their vengeance; for James was a clever man, but Charles, who had little of his father's political talent, at last drove his Parliament to desperation.



CHARLES I. (R. 1600; D. 1649).

2. **Unpopularity.**—The arrival of Henrietta Maria—a firm Catholic—in England excited the distrust of the nation; and the failure of the Protestants in Germany, which became daily more complete, caused Parliament to be unwilling to send them money. They refused to grant to the king for more than two years the *Tonnage and Poundage* usually granted for life. Two blunders of Buckingham's followed: one was the loan of ships to Richelieu, the French minister, to be used

against the Protestants in that country, and the other was an inglorious expedition against Cadiz, which failed, owing to the incompetency of its commanders.

3. **Buckingham Impeached** (1626).—The expenses of the war compelled Charles to summon his *Second Parliament*. The Commons refused to grant the king any money, and instead at once brought forward the grievances of the nation. They attacked Buckingham, whom they rightly regarded as the cause of these mishaps ; and in the name of the nation they impeached him before the House of Lords. The House of Lords would doubtless have condemned him, had not the king, in order to save his friend, suddenly dissolved Parliament. Elliot, the leader of the attack, was sent to the Tower, and a general forced loan was exacted by the king's sole authority from the country.

4. Meanwhile Buckingham and Charles had quarrelled with Richelieu, the great minister of France, and determined to win glory for themselves and to please the English by sending aid to the French Protestants, with whom the king, Louis XIII., was at open war. Buckingham, therefore, attempted to occupy the town of La Rochelle, but retired unsuccessful to England.

5. **Third Parliament** (1627).—Want of money then compelled Charles to call Parliament together once more. To his haughty demands for a grant, the Commons made answer by drawing up a great document, called the *Petition of Right* (1628), in which they protested solemnly against the late exactions. Especially did they object to the unlawful taxes, the unjust imprisonments, the quartering of soldiers on the people, and the trial of subjects of England by irregular and arbitrary forms of law. After an angry struggle, Charles gave way ; he consented to the *Petition* in plain terms, and the grateful Commons in return granted him large sums of money. But the Commons returned to

the attack of Buckingham as the cause of all their grievances, and Charles forthwith dismissed them.

6. **Buckingham Murdered** (1628).—Buckingham went to Portsmouth to make preparations for another expedition to relieve the Protestants in La Rochelle. There an officer named Felton, who hated the duke for his crimes, stabbed him to the heart. He had misled the king, brought England into disgrace abroad, and raised bitter strife between parties at home.

7. **Wentworth and Laud**.—Buckingham's death brought to the front a far greater man. This was Thomas Wentworth. He had formerly been on Elliot's side, and had gone to prison sooner than contribute to the Forced Loan, but he now became High Treasurer, and in course of time Lord Strafford. Another of the king's new friends was Laud, Bishop of London, whom the Puritans hated, because he was chief of the High Church clergy, who were thought to be trying to introduce Roman Catholic observances into the Church, and who habitually preached the doctrine that it was necessary to submit to the royal commands, however unjust they might be. With the help of these men, Charles attempted to face Parliament again, but finding Elliot and his friends determined to oppose his unauthorised levy of Tonnage and Poundage, the leniency to Catholics (which the queen promoted in order to win the alliance of France), and the changes in the Church service, he dissolved the House, and tyrannically sent the nine leaders of the Opposition to prison, where Elliot died after much suffering.

8. **The Tyranny** (1629—1640).—For eleven years Charles ruled without a Parliament, and supplied himself with money by various illegal means. Poor squires were forced to become knights, or to pay heavy fines; taxes were laid on articles of food; many landowners were fined because, it was said, they had taken strips of land



from the royal forests ; a large sum of money was exacted from those who had built houses near London without permission of the king. To compel submission, the Court of the Star Chamber was revived. It recognised no laws but the king's will, and fined men grievously for speaking against Charles or his ministers.



PUNISHMENT OF THE PILLORY.

But the most vexatious tax was that of "ship-money," which was laid upon the nation under the pretence that the country was in danger from pirates, and that it was needful to fit out ships and fight them. A brave gentleman, John Hampden, refused to pay this tax, but he was brought to trial, and the judges decided against him.

9. The Court of the Star Chamber was also employed to carry out the cruel commands of Laud, now

Archbishop of Canterbury. Men who wrote against the Romish tendencies of the bishops were fined, and very often mutilated in the pillory and sent to prisons beyond seas. Great was the terror among the Puritans; their priests were compelled to resign their livings, and many took refuge in America, where the "Pilgrim Fathers," as the first Puritan emigrants have been called, had already founded the colony of Massachusetts (1620).

10. **Wentworth in Ireland.**—In 1633 Wentworth was sent to Ireland as Lord Deputy, to reduce that island also to the king's will. The Irish nobles were thrown into prison for merely grumbling at the new Government; the laws were sternly enforced; the Puritans in the north were forced to conform to the observances of the English Church; a large sum of money was forced from the trembling Irish Parliament. A great number of landowners were driven from Connaught, where Wentworth planted a new English colony. Ireland was indeed at peace, and to the eye all seemed well, but the Puritans and Catholics alike had come to hate Charles and his minister.

11. **The Covenant** (1638).—Meanwhile Charles had visited his countrymen in Scotland (1633), where his haughty manners soon disgusted the nobles. The people also were furious when Laud began to introduce changes into the Scotch Kirk; violent outbreaks occurred in the large towns, and the clergy, in fear of their lives, did not dare to read the new *Service-Book* which Laud induced Charles to force upon them.

12. At length several of the great nobles agreed to sign a new *Covenant*, as they had previously done in the days of Mary of Guise, whereby they promised to stand by the Protestant cause to the death. The people in multitudes followed their example. The king then pretended to consent to abolish the new Church service,

and summoned a General Assembly of the Kirk. When the Assembly met, it resolved that the bishops should be deposed, and that all the forms of worship introduced by James should also now be done away with. Then the Covenanters, seeing that the king nevertheless intended to enforce his will, took up arms and marched under their general, David Leslie, to the English border.

**13. The Short Parliament (1640).**— Charles hastened to York, where he had summoned his army to join him, but no troops came. Therefore he began to treat with the enemy at Berwick. But the king did not really mean to yield, and the Scotch army again advanced on England. Hoping for support from England, Charles, for the first time in eleven years, summoned a Parliament, but they would grant him no money, and were dissolved; the royal soldiers ran away before the advancing Scots; and the baffled king was finally compelled to make peace with his rebellious subjects, allowing them to continue in arms on English soil until he had paid them the expenses of the expedition.

**14. The Long Parliament (1640).**— Once again Charles was compelled to summon Parliament. Members met with the stern resolve to set England free, to enforce the law, and to destroy the tyranny of Laud over religion. Their leaders were John Pym, who was one of the brave members who had fallen under the displeasure of King James I., and who had now succeeded to the position of his dead friend Elliot; and John Hampden, who had refused to pay the ship-money. The Speaker was Lenthall. They at once proceeded to the punishment of Strafford and Laud, their deadly enemies; the other ministers fled.

**15. The Fall of Strafford.**— In the name of the nation the Commons *impeached* Strafford for treason before the House of Lords, the Supreme Court of the realm. The charge of treason could not be legally made

good, for he asserted that he had only acted in obedience to the royal commands. But there was evidence to show that Strafford intended to subdue England with the aid of an Irish army, and the Commons proceeded to bring in a Bill of Attainder, condemning him to death. To this the Lords, who hated Strafford as an upstart, eagerly gave their consent. The king, who had promised to protect him, abandoned the minister to his foes. Strafford died fearlessly on Tower Hill, amidst the glad shouts of the people.

16. **Parliament Supreme.**—The victorious Commons had already freed the country from the odious ship-money, and the equally hateful Star Chamber; they passed a Bill to secure the assembly of Parliament at least once in three years, and another by which they could not be dissolved without their own consent. Charles, who was thoroughly disheartened, allowed all these measures to become law. He went to Scotland, and there, by large promises and grants of titles and estates, he became for a time very popular. Everything seemed to prove that he intended to conquer England with Scotch troops.

17. **Irish Massacre (1641).**—Terrible news now came from Ireland. There the Catholic Irish had risen, and were murdering the English settlers by thousands. Charles returned, therefore, to London, where he was well received. But Parliament feared to grant him an army, lest he might use it afterwards for his own purposes. Moreover, the rebels were asserting that they were acting by the command of the king. In this crisis Pym and his friends drew up a *Grand Remonstrance*, in which they gave a long account of their past grievances. They demanded the exclusion of the bishops from the House of Lords. They claimed that Parliament should have the control of the army, and finally asked for a guard from the city to protect

the House against the king. Upon this many of the more moderate men, like Hyde (afterwards Lord Clarendon) and Falkland, left the side of Parliament and joined the king. Surrounded by soldiers, he went down to the House to seize Hampden, Pym, and three other of his most active opponents. But "the birds had flown," having been forewarned by friends, and the king, obliged to withdraw discomfited, retired to York.

## CHAPTER XVIII.

### THE CAVALIERS AND THE ROUNDHEADS.

1. **Civil War (1642).**—Charles forthwith began to raise an army to compel Parliament to submit. The Commons, on the other hand, enlisted troops for themselves, and placed Lord Essex at the head of their forces. The civil war had begun; and battle after battle took place between the *Cavaliers*, as Charles's followers were called, and the *Roundheads*, or close-cropped soldiers of Parliament.



A ROYALIST TROOPER.

2. **The Royalist Successes.**—Having raised his standard at Nottingham, Charles marched on London. The Parliamentary forces, under Lord Essex, met the Royalists at *Edgehill*, where a drawn

battle was fought. Many of the Roundhead soldiers fled at once, but hot-headed Prince Rupert, Charles's nephew,

led off the best of the royal troops in search of plunder, and allowed Essex to rally his men. Charles, however, pursued his way towards London. The news of his approach caused great panic; but he did not venture to attack the capital, and retired to Oxford, which remained a stronghold of his cause. Essex meanwhile occupied Reading, and barred the way to London; but, being a very cautious general, he did not venture to attack the king. In a skirmish between Rupert and some Parliamentary troops, the former was defeated, but John Hampden was slain, and so Parliament lost the best and noblest of its chiefs.

3. During this year the Cavaliers were successful nearly all over England. In the west, the Roundhead armies were cut to pieces; in the north, where the queen had landed with money and arms, Lord Newcastle had won several battles; Oliver Cromwell alone, commanding the troops of the "Association" of the eastern counties, could hold his own in Lincolnshire.

Encouraged by success, Charles resolved to take the city of Gloucester, which lay between Oxford and the loyal Welsh. Essex, however, marched after him, forced him to give up the siege, and met the Cavaliers as they returned at *Newbury*, where the second great battle of the war was fought. As before, both sides claimed the victory, and the rival generals went their way, Charles to Oxford, and Essex to London.

4. **Presbyterianism Established** (1643).—In spite of the generosity of the citizens of London, the Parliament were much in want of money and men, and began to look for aid to the Scots. Already they



A PURITAN.

had sworn adhesion to the *Solemn League and Covenant*, and now they went farther, and declared that the Presbyterian form of worship should be established in place of the Anglican. John Pym, who died soon afterwards, was followed to the grave by the hated Archbishop Laud, executed in order to please the Scots. One hundred and sixty-five of the members now obeyed Charles's summons to the *Oxford Parliament*; but they learnt to distrust him as much as they disliked the revolutionary policy of the Parliament at Westminster, and no advance was made towards peace.

5. **Marston Moor** (1644).—Meanwhile the Parliamentary forces were gaining in numbers and in discipline, and at length Sir Thomas Fairfax, joined by the forces of the Association under Lord Manchester and Cromwell, and by the Scots under Leslie, crushed the Royalist forces under Lord Newcastle on *Marston Moor*, outside the walls of York, and placed the north in the hands of Parliament. Prince Rupert, with a body of horse, drove the Scots before him; but Cromwell's cavalry—the “Ironsides,” as they were called—stood firm, and the Royalists became, in the words of Cromwell, “as stubble to their swords.”

6. But the Roundheads were not equally successful elsewhere. Charles defeated one of their armies outside Oxford, and pursued the other, commanded by Lord Essex, into Cornwall, where most of his troops had to surrender. All would have been well for Charles had he been able to reach Oxford in safety; but Cromwell met him at *Newbury*, where for the second time a battle was fought, which successfully checked the advance of the Royalists.

7. **The New Model** (1645).—The intolerant and rigid Presbyterian Church established by Parliament now came into conflict with those who desired that worship should be left to the consciences of individual

men. These were called the *Independents*, and to them Cromwell and the best of the Army belonged. Great dissatisfaction was felt against the generals who were friendly to the Presbyterian party, chief among whom were Manchester and Essex; for it was said that they, fearing the ascendancy of the *Independents*, were reluctant to crush Charles utterly. This accusation was brought against Lord Manchester by Cromwell, in the House of Commons, and most of those present believed him.

8. In order to get rid of these men, the *Self-denying Ordinance* was passed through Parliament, by which the members of either House were forbidden to hold commands in the army. Fresh discipline was introduced amongst the troops, the foot-soldiers were made more efficient, and Fairfax was placed at the head of the "new-modelled" army. Cromwell, who was a member of Parliament, had been compelled by the new law to resign his command, but he soon resumed it, at the request of the Commons. The new army took the field in 1645.

9. **The War in Scotland.**—Meanwhile good news came to Charles from Scotland. There the Royalists had been completely victorious. The Highlanders, under the Marquis of Montrose, supported by some Irish troops raised by the Earl of Antrim, had defeated the friends of the Parliament on all sides; the lands of the Duke of Argyle, the powerful leader of the Presbyterian party, had been ravaged, and Aberdeen and Dundee had surrendered.

10. **Defeat of the Royalists.**—But this was the last great success of the Cavaliers; for in the summer Cromwell came up with the royal forces at *Naseby*, as they were marching towards the eastern counties, and once more beat them, this time with great loss. As at Newbury and at Marston, it was the headlong



violence of Prince Rupert which proved fatal to his friends. The royal force retreated to the west, Fairfax following them, and taking town after town; even Rupert could not hold out in Bristol. Before the end of the year the king's friends had been conquered throughout England, Oxford had fallen, and tidings came of the defeat of Montrose in Scotland, and that no help was to be expected from Ireland. Charles was left in the centre of England without any troops, and without means to raise them.

11. **Charles Flees to the Scots (1646).**—Still, he did not despair; he thought that by playing off the Presbyterians against the Independents he might recover his own position. Finding, however, that Parliament would not listen to him, he resolved to put himself in the hands of the Scots; and he fled, accordingly, to their camp at Newark. There he tried to persuade the generals to break off their alliance with Parliament, and to re-establish him on his throne, but they finally decided to give him up to the English Parliament, and leave England as soon as the expenses of the war were paid to them. The money was paid at once, the Scots marched off, and Charles was sent as a prisoner to Holmby House.

12. **Parliament and the Army.**—Still, his cause was not altogether lost; for now a violent quarrel broke out between the Presbyterians of Parliament and the Independents of the Army. The members who remained now thought that they would order things at their pleasure in the Church and State. They called on the Army to disband, but the Army refused to obey. The soldiers took possession of the king, and then marched with him to London, where they compelled eleven of their opponents to withdraw from the House.

13. The victorious Army then proposed to Charles to restore him on condition that he would assent to reforms

in the administration of law and the election of Parliaments, and that the Government should remain for ten years in the hands of its leaders. These moderate conditions, to the astonishment of all men, he refused to accept. For he was still playing a double part, and, while he made promises to the Commons, was now looking for aid from the Scots, who grew more and more jealous of the Independents. He then escaped from Hampton Court, where it was said that his life was in danger from the angry soldiers, but he was again imprisoned in the Isle of Wight.

14. **Second War.**—The Scots now rose in arms for their king, and crossed the border, led on by the Duke of Hamilton, and small bands of Royalists rose on all sides; but Fairfax and Cromwell were too strong for these disorderly bands. Hamilton was defeated at *Preston*, and within four months the “second civil war,” as it has been called, came to a close.

15. The Army was determined to submit no longer to the intrigues of Parliament to overthrow them, and to the tricks of the king. They marched on London, and sent Colonel Pride with soldiers to turn such of the members as were displeasing to them out of the House. This violent act is known as “Pride’s Purge.” The remainder were compelled to pass a resolution that the king should be brought to trial.

16. **Death of the King.**—Charles was tried at Whitehall by a High Court of Justice, appointed by the Commons; and as he refused to answer the questions put to him, the trial was soon concluded, and he was sentenced to death. Charles was executed on January 29th, before Whitehall, conducting himself to the last with great nobleness. He had acted in many ways as Henry VIII. had acted before him, but times had changed, and Englishmen would no longer submit to the oppression endured by their forefathers. The

great stain in the character of Charles is his want of truthfulness; he never kept his word, either to friend or enemy.

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## CHAPTER XIX.

### THE COMMONWEALTH.



OLIVER CROMWELL  
(B. 1599; D. 1658).

#### 1. The Commonwealth.—

Thus England was left without any ruling power; for the House of Lords had been abolished, and the House of Commons was reduced to a mere remnant. Nevertheless, they were made the chief power in the country. A Council of State was chosen from them, and the Government was called a Commonwealth.

#### 2. Cromwell in Ireland.—

The Irish rebellion had continued during the whole of the civil war; indeed, Charles had several times treated with the rebels, in the vain hope that they would come and help him in England. Cromwell was now sent to Ireland, and sternly set to work to subdue the country.

3. On his arrival, he found the Royalist commander, the Duke of Ormond, master of the country; the native Irish, under O'Neil, had joined him, and the whole country except Dublin and Londonderry acknowledged Charles, the Prince of Wales, who was said to be coming to help them from Holland. But the arrival of Cromwell changed everything. Ormond was defeated near Dublin, and the capture of Drogheda and Wexford in the south, the garrisons of which were put to death to a man, brought the war to a close. The stern severity of Cromwell effectively restored order in Ireland.

4. **Cromwell in Scotland.**—Meanwhile, in Scotland, Montrose had made one last attempt on behalf of the Stuarts, but had been overthrown by the Covenanters, and put to death; but they, though they hated Montrose, hated Independents and Republicans too, and now proclaimed the Prince of Wales King of Scotland. Charles accepted the Covenant, and was soon among his new subjects.

5. Cromwell hastened to Edinburgh, but had to retreat—being sorely in want of provisions—to *Dunbar*, where he was shut in between the Scots under old Leslie and the sea, so that escape seemed impossible. But the Scots incautiously came down from their strong position on the hills, and Cromwell, crying aloud, “Let God arise, and let his enemies be scattered!” fell upon them, and they fled in utter confusion. Cromwell advanced to Edinburgh, and soon the greater part of the country submitted to him.

6. **Royalists Vanquished (1651).**—Next year, however, the Royalists, with young Charles among them, slipped past Cromwell into England, hoping to raise their friends there, and thus take Cromwell in the rear. No one would join them; and as they lay at *Worcester* in a state of indecision, Cromwell came up, and drove them pell-mell before him through the streets of the city. Charles fled, and after many narrow escapes, took ship at Brighton, and gained the coast of France. Scotland was gradually reduced to submission by General Monk.

7. **The Long Parliament Dissolved (1653).**—Since the king’s death little had been done to establish a satisfactory form of government. There was but the remnant or *Rump* of the Long Parliament, consisting of some sixty persons, and that was all. They, wishing to remain in power, declared that the vacant seats should be filled, but that they themselves should not have to

submit to re-election. But this arrangement neither Cromwell nor the Army would permit. Gradually the "Rump" became hated by the nation. They had declared war against Holland; and though Admiral Blake won great victories over the brave Dutch, it was a terribly costly affair. They were guilty of receiving bribes from Royalists whose estates had been forfeited to the nation. This was more than the Army could endure. They ordered the Commons to consider the question of a new Parliament; but when it was seen that they were not in earnest, and were only trying to deceive the Army, Cromwell went down to the House, called in his troopers, and turned them out.

8. **Barebone's Parliament** (1653).—Cromwell now attempted to govern England by means of an assembly of men chosen by himself. But this plan was a failure. *Barebone's Parliament*, as it was called, from the name of one of its members, consisted of men chosen for their virtues and beliefs rather than for any political skill in law-making. Many of them were full of wild religious ideas; and finding that all men looked on them with mistrust, they gladly resigned their power.

9. **Cromwell Protector** (1653—1658).—The officers of the Army now resolved to place the chief power in Cromwell's hands. A Constitution was drawn up, called the *Instrument of Government*, by which Cromwell received the title of Lord Protector; a Council of State was appointed whom he was bound to consult, and arrangements were made for the election of a new Parliament. When it met, the days were wasted in endless disputes. Cromwell turned out some for refusing to acknowledge his authority, and then, finding that the assembly was still disposed to be obstructive, he dissolved it, and for nearly two years governed, like Charles, without any Parliament.

10. This unsettled state of affairs produced much

discontent throughout England. Plots were formed for the murder of the Protector; the Royalists, who never ceased to hope for the restoration of their old worship and of a legal constitutional monarchy, rose in Wiltshire and proclaimed King Charles. Cromwell's measures were prompt: he divided England into ten military districts, placing a major-general in command of each, with powers to exact heavy sums of money from all Royalists. Peace being thus secured, Cromwell was able to turn his attention to Spain, whose



SHILLING OF OLIVER CROMWELL.

king refused to allow English colonists to settle in America. War was declared, and after several indecisive battles, the island of Jamaica, one of the most valuable of our possessions in the West Indies, was taken by Admiral Penn, a success which was followed by the capture of two treasure fleets by Admiral Blake.

11. The expense of war compelled Cromwell, as it had Charles, to summon yet another Parliament. Once again he was obliged to exclude his opponents, and soon found that his new assembly was ready enough to obey him. It proposed to restore, as far as possible, the old form of government, and even to make Cromwell King of England; but finding the officers of the Army were opposed to the change, Cromwell rejected the royal title.

**12. Last Parliament (1658).**—A new Parliament was summoned, to which those who had previously been excluded were now readmitted; and the Upper House, abolished by the "Rump," was revived. But there was some difficulty about the choice of the new Upper House; many influential men refused to belong to it, while the Republicans in the Lower House objected to it altogether, so that at last the Protector, in a fit of just anger, dissolved this, the last of his Parliaments.

**13. Close of the Protectorate.**—For the brief remainder of his life the great Protector ruled with almost absolute power, and so used it that his name was feared, England respected, and the cause of the Protestants defended, throughout Europe. He had formed an alliance against Spain with France, by which he gained the important fort of Dunkirk. But at home, plot succeeded plot; many of the officers in the Army were weary of the stern rule of the Protectorate, and Cromwell went in continual fear of death from the daggers of murderous Royalists. The death of his daughter completed the decay that public anxieties had begun. He lay for days in a state of great weakness, pouring forth continually earnest prayers to God, and died on the 6th of August, 1658.

**14. Richard Cromwell (1658).**—On the death of the Protector, his son Richard, a quiet and irresolute young man, was proclaimed by the Army as his successor. But he was totally unfit to govern in such troublous times. He quarrelled with his Parliament, among the members of which were many violent Republicans, and the officers of the Army despised his unwarlike disposition. They chose another commander-in-chief, and then recalled the "Rump" to govern the nation. Richard retired into private life, leaving the rival parties to settle their own difficulties, and very soon the Army turned out the Parliament for the second time.

15. **Monk.**—Such a state of confusion gave great hope to the Royalists, and most men began to wish for the ancient constitution. Among them was General Monk, who had been in Scotland as governor of the country under the Protectorate, ever since the battle of Dunbar. He now marched southwards, at the head of some chosen regiments, without declaring his intentions, and scattering the remainder of the English army before him, arrived at London, and summoned the *Convention Parliament* amidst universal satisfaction to decide upon the future government of the realm.

16. **Charles II. Restored (1660).**—As he had expected, all were weary of change. The Parliament solemnly voted that, “according to the ancient and fundamental laws of this kingdom, the Government is, and ought to be, by King, Lords, and Commons.” Prince Charles, by the *Declaration of Breda*, promised to pardon his enemies, and to grant liberty of worship to all men. He was recalled, and landed at Dover on May 25th, 1660, amidst universal joy, the Army alone being unfavourable to the return of the Stuarts, but not daring to risk the chance of a battle. It was soon disbanded, and Charles II. ascended the throne without opposition.

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## CHAPTER XX.

### THE RESTORATION.

1. **Charles II. (1660—1685).**—Charles II. was now thirty years of age. The adventures of his youth had given a certain decision to his character, which he concealed beneath an outward affectation of careless gaiety; he was, however, a very selfish and self-indulgent man, ready to stoop to dishonest and treacherous practices. His court was disgraced by vice



and folly. The country was soon seriously disappointed with the results of the Restoration. Charles forgot his promises. The Cavaliers found difficulty in regaining their properties, and in some instances received no reward for the money and lands they had lost in the service of the king.

2. **Clarendon.**—Charles's chief minister was Lord Clarendon, the historian, who had been the faithful adviser of his father. He was a painstaking but narrow-minded man, deeply devoted to the Church of England, and determined that it should be established in the three kingdoms. He therefore bitterly opposed the Dissenters.



BISHOP (TIME OF  
CHARLES II.).

3. **The National Church.**—A Parliament was summoned, which was chiefly composed of exasperated Cavaliers; and though it came into collision with the Crown from time to time, the majority remained so loyal to the dynasty and to the Church that Charles did not dissolve it for eighteen years (1661—1679). In

the main, his *Cavalier Parliament* aimed at upholding the Constitution precisely as it had existed before the war. It at once abolished the Presbyterian worship, which had been established by the Long Parliament. The Act of Uniformity was passed, by which the Book of Common Prayer was re-established for public worship. Over two thousand ministers were unable to accept it, and resigned their livings. Nor did the sufferings of the Nonconformists end there; for, in 1664, a law was passed, by which Dissenters were not allowed to meet for purposes of prayer in numbers of more than five, and many people were thrust into prison for disobeying it.

4. **The Kirk.**—In Scotland the Covenanters had received their king with great loyalty. Their feelings, however, changed considerably when they found that the power of the bishops was to be restored. All clergy were compelled to submit to ordination by bishops, and on their refusal many were driven from their livings. All Acts of Parliament passed during the last twenty years were abolished, and the Duke of Argyle, the noblest of the Covenanters, was executed on a false charge of treason. Other persecutions followed.

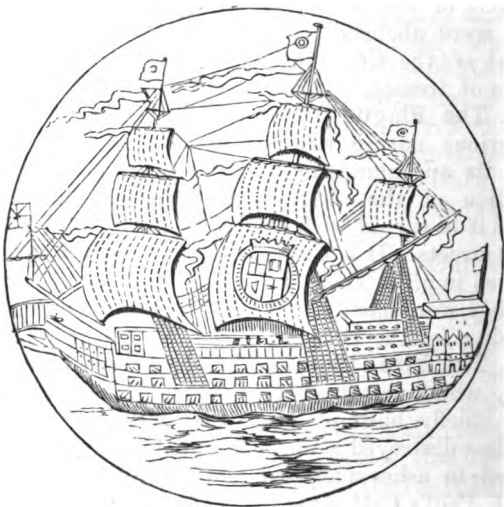
5. **The Plague** (1665).—The plague, which in its mysterious nature reminds us of the Black Death, made its appearance in England in 1665. The dirty condition of the streets and houses of the capital caused it to spread with fearful rapidity; men fell dead in the streets. It is thought that a hundred thousand perished in all. There was no time to bury the bodies, but they were hastily flung into great pits which had been dug for the purpose.

6. **The Fire** (1666).—The plague was followed by a fire, which burnt about thirteen hundred houses—being chiefly built of wood they were consumed like stubble—destroyed a vast amount of merchandise, and reduced to ashes many old and noble churches, including St. Paul's Cathedral.

7. **Louis XIV.**—France had now become, under Louis XIV., the most powerful state in Europe. He commanded the largest army and the ablest ministers in the world. It became his object to conquer Spain and Holland, and to extend his sway over the whole territory from the Straits of Gibraltar to the Rhine. In these vast projects, particularly in his proposed conquest of Holland, he desired the friendship of England. The English people, however, sympathised with the Dutch Protestants. Louis accordingly maintained a secret intrigue with Charles. He encouraged him to favour

the Catholics and to resist his Parliament, and paid him rich bribes to induce him to join him against Holland.

8. **War with Holland (1667).**—Before long some petty dispute about trade with Holland brought the war about. Two great battles were fought, in the first of which our sailors, under the king's brother,



MAN-OF-WAR (TIME OF CHARLES II.).

James, Duke of York, gained a victory; but in the second, under Monk, they suffered a severe defeat after one of the most terrible of naval battles, which lasted for two whole days. In the following year England underwent a humiliation such as she has not often suffered. The selfish king had spent all the money which had been granted him by Parliament for the war on his dissolute courtiers. The Dutch sailed up the Thames unopposed and burnt the shipping. Instead

of trying to wipe out this disgrace, the Government concluded peace.

9. **Fall of Clarendon** (1667).—The king and Parliament alike were by this time dissatisfied with Clarendon for his strict adherence to the ancient forms of the Constitution. He offended the king by resisting any illegal exercise of his prerogative, especially in dispensing with the laws against Catholics and Nonconformists; and he offended the Parliament by resisting any encroachment on their part upon the old authority of the king. When Parliament, dissatisfied with the way in which public money was spent, claimed to examine the royal accounts, Clarendon advised its dissolution. The national disgrace was now laid at his door, and all parties gladly combined to overthrow him. By the command of the king, Clarendon fled to France, and in his absence was banished for life, the chief charge against him being the sale of Dunkirk, which Cromwell had gained for England, to the King of France.

10. **The Cabal** (1667—1674).—He was succeeded by a contemptible set of ministers, of whom Buckingham and Lauderdale were the worst, known as the *Cabal*, that is, the conspirators. Two of these men, Lord Arlington and Lord Clifford, were Roman Catholics; the fifth, however, Lord Shaftesbury, was a friend of the Presbyterians, and earnestly in favour of toleration for the Nonconformists. They began by deceiving the people into the belief that they wished to re-establish the honour of England on the Continent. A *Triple Alliance* (1668) was formed between England, Holland, and Sweden, by which those countries bound themselves to resist France.

11. **Treaty of Dover** (1670).—But even while in open alliance with the enemies of France, Charles, by the secret *Treaty of Dover*, stooped so low as to become the hireling of Louis, and promised to declare himself

a Catholic, and to abandon his Dutch allies, for a yearly sum of money. Charles hoped thus to become independent of the House of Commons, whose desire to examine the royal accounts was most odious to him. He wished also to raise a large army with which to crush all opposition, and to restore the Roman Catholic form of religion in England. Louis also promised to send an army into England if necessary. Never had an English king committed so shameful an act.

12. **France Frustrated.**—This double-dealing met with its just reward. Without declaring war against Holland, Charles attempted to seize a fleet of merchant vessels on the way from Smyrna, but his ships were driven off, and the Duke of York failed to overcome the Dutch admiral, De Ruyter, off the coast of Suffolk. Then Louis XIV. passed his troops over the frontier of Holland, and for a moment the Dutch were crushed; but they found a new leader in young William of Orange, who, in spite of defeat after defeat, forced the French army to retreat from the country, and saved Holland, as his ancestor William the Silent had done in the days of Queen Elizabeth. This William of Orange was afterwards to be King of England.

13. **Declaration of Indulgence (1672).**—Shaftesbury's well-méant endeavours to render the lot of the Dissenters less hard came to nothing; for the king of his own authority undertook to relieve Nonconformists from the law by the *Declaration of Indulgence*. Parliament, irritated at the usurpation, not only insisted upon its recall by the refusal of supplies, but, further, by the *Test Act* (1673), compelled every official to receive the sacrament according to the form prescribed by the Established Church. The Cabal Ministry broke up. Peace was made with Holland, and Shaftesbury, who thought that he had been shabbily treated by the king, took the command of those who

were in opposition to the court, who about this time were known as the *Country Party*. The chief objects of these men were to obtain the dissolution of the Cavalier Parliament, and to prevent James, Duke of York, the king's brother, who had recently declared himself a Roman Catholic, from succeeding to the throne.

14. **Ministry of Danby** (1674—1678).—The new chief-minister was Lord Danby, a staunch Protestant and an enemy of France; but he was selected by the king as the head of the Cavalier party, which was still powerful in the Parliament. All this while Charles was receiving bribes from the French king. Louis, however, was much disgusted because Charles was unable to carry out his part of the bargain by restoring the Catholic religion at least in Ireland. He thought that Charles was playing him false, and his suspicions were confirmed when he heard that Mary, the eldest daughter of the Duke of York, had been betrothed to his arch-enemy, William of Orange.

15. **The Secret Treaty Exposed**.—The fickle king very soon grew tired of the Dutch alliance, and became anxious for more money from France. He agreed by a second secret treaty to abandon William of Orange, if Louis would give him a larger bribe; and this the French king, who found the war very burdensome, was willing for the moment to do. Left to themselves the Dutch were forced to make peace with France; and then Louis avenged himself on his faithless ally by supporting the Country Party with funds for bribery, and by making known the terms of the secret treaty to the House of Commons.

16. **The Popish Plot** (1678).—Meanwhile the nation was wildly excited by the report that there was a plot amongst the Roman Catholics to rise, murder the king, and establish the Roman Catholic religion. Titus Oates, an infamous man, made money out of the

panic by inventing stories against the Catholics. His impudent lies were believed at the time, and several innocent men suffered death; among them, Lord Stafford. For the leaders of the Country Party saw that by encouraging the idea of a Catholic plot they could increase the hatred of the nation against the Duke of York, and so prevent him from becoming king.

**17. Triumph of the Country Party (1679).**—In the end a Bill was passed excluding Roman Catholics alike from the Lords and the Commons. Greatly irritated and utterly discredited with the old Parliament by Louis' exposure of the secret alliance between the French and English courts, Charles at last consented to its dissolution. A new Parliament was elected. The majority proved hostile to the court, and sent Danby to the Tower. His place was taken by Sir William Temple, an amiable and well-meaning man, who tried to form a government composed as far as possible of the leaders of both the Court and the Country Parties. Shaftesbury became a leading member of the Government. The printing of books, which till now had been controlled by law, was made free to all; and the Habeas Corpus Act, one of the most important of English laws, was passed, which forbids the permanent imprisonment of any man unless he has first been tried and received legal sentence in a court of law.

**18. Sufferings of the Covenanters.**—Meanwhile the Scottish Covenanters had been suffering terribly under the stern rule of Lauderdale, but no oppression could force them to accept a form of worship which they thought to be wrong. They met for worship on the cold hill-sides, but were frequently compelled to break up their congregations by the king's soldiers. Exasperated by these persecutions, several of the more determined among them resolved to murder Archbishop

Sharp, whom they considered to have betrayed their cause; and they slew him in a lonely place before his daughter's eyes.

19. The English Government exacted full satisfaction for this unjust deed, and sent an officer named Graham of Claverhouse to hunt the murderers down. But the Covenanters turned to bay, and, armed only with pikes and pitchforks, drove off the royal dragoons, and for awhile were able to worship undisturbed.

20. **Monmouth.**—Fresh troops were hastily despatched from England, and the young Duke of Monmouth was sent to command them. This noble, though a secret hung over his birth, was thought by many to be the son of Charles, and hence the heir to the throne. His graceful manners made him the darling of the nation. He defeated the Covenanters, who were in want of powder, and led by inexperienced men, at Bothwell Bridge (1679). The reduction of the country was completed by the Duke of York, who, as a stern Catholic, hated the Covenanters, and persecuted them with terrible cruelty. The mercy which the Duke of Monmouth had shown contrasted very favourably with the barbarities of his uncle, and on his return to England every one received him with great joy.



DUKE OF MONMOUTH.

21. **The Succession.**—The Ministry was breaking up through its dissensions as to Charles's successor. Temple, Lord Sunderland, and Lord Halifax desired that James, even though a Catholic, should reign next under certain restrictions. Shaftesbury resolutely demanded his exclusion. Failing James, William of



Orange, whose mother was a daughter of Charles I., and his wife Mary, who was the daughter of James himself, were the next heirs. But he was the head of the Anti-Catholic and Anti-French party in Europe, and Charles would not consent to pass James over. Shaftesbury's *Exclusion Bill*, however, was supported by the nation, which was still excited by the Popish Plot. It was on the verge of becoming law when Charles dissolved the Parliament to avert the danger.

22. **Whigs and Tories.**—It was at this time that the supporters of the Exclusion Bill received the name of *Whigs*, while their opponents, the Court Party, were called *Tories*. These nicknames were originally given in derision. A Whig was a member of a very strict Protestant sect in Scotland; a Tory was a wild Irish robber. These names of the great English political divisions have continued in use to the present day.

23. **Fall of Shaftesbury.**—The popularity of Monmouth with the nation and with the king unfortunately suggested to Shaftesbury and the other leaders of the Country Party that his recognition by Charles as heir would solve the difficulty. Shaftesbury, however, was not supported by his colleagues, by the nation, nor by Charles; and he was dismissed from his office (1679). Halifax became the leading minister. A new Parliament, though it would not pledge itself to Monmouth, proved as resolute as the last to exclude James, and was in turn dissolved by the king (1681). Yet another was summoned to Oxford, and yet again dissolved; and Charles, relying upon his pension from Louis, determined, in defiance of the *Triennial Act*, to govern thenceforth without one. Shaftesbury was tried for high treason, but a London jury declined to proceed against him. He then did his utmost to raise the country in arms against the king, but failed. He fled soon afterwards to Holland, and died there (1683).

**24. Tyranny of Charles.**—Charles now set himself to uproot all resistance to himself and James, and he was greatly helped by the disgust felt at Shaftesbury's persecution of the Papists accused as concerned in the imaginary plot, and by his late reckless policy. The infamous Judge Jeffreys was sent through England to compel the corporations of the towns to resign the charters or documents in which their rights and privileges were set forth, and thus to leave them without any means of resistance to royal tyranny.

**25. Rye House Plot (1683).**—The Whigs were driven to despair by this attack. A small band of desperate men formed a plan for murdering the king and the Duke of York as they passed a farm called *Rye House*, on the road between London and Newmarket. The plot was betrayed. The real conspirators escaped the royal vengeance, but Essex, Russell, and Sidney, who were guilty only of expressions of discontent at the arbitrary acts of the king, were unrighteously condemned to death. Monmouth fled abroad, and the Duke of York became once more Admiral of England, and the chief adviser of Charles. An army was collected on the north coast of Africa, by means of which Charles hoped at last to restore the Catholic religion.

**26. Death of Charles II. (1685).**—But in the midst of his plots the king was seized with a mortal illness. When he felt himself to be dying, he confessed that he was a Roman Catholic. The death of this crafty conspirator, who was all the more dangerous because most men thought that he was a mere idle trifler, saved England from becoming a dependency of the unscrupulous King Louis XIV. It is to Charles, quite as much as to his brother James who succeeded him on the throne, that the expulsion of the Stuarts from England was due.

## CHAPTER XXI.

## THE FALL OF THE STUARTS.

1. **James II.** (1685—1688).—James II., now in his fifty-second year, had none of his brother's cleverness. He was a narrow-minded man, of a cruel and relentless disposition, who did not attempt to disguise his religious or political views; he believed in the Roman Catholic religion, and in Absolute Monarchy. Charles had been very popular on account of his easy good-nature; James was disliked on account of his rough and overbearing manners. His first acts were not calculated to win popularity; he openly attended a Roman Catholic service, and then proceeded to collect taxes without waiting for the consent of Parliament.

2. **Rebellion of Monmouth and Argyle.**—The Duke of Monmouth determined to snatch the crown of England from his unpopular uncle. On the death of his father he was in Holland, and was joined there by Archibald Campbell, Earl of Argyle, the champion of freedom and Protestantism in Scotland, who had been compelled to fly from Scotland during the persecutions in the previous reign. These two men, animated with a common hatred of James, agreed to invade England and Scotland respectively, and, if possible, drive out their enemy.

3. **Argyle Crushed.**—Argyle's expedition sailed first; he landed among his people in the south-west of Scotland, and was joined by large numbers of his faithful clan. But his army melted away; Argyle fled in disguise; he was taken prisoner, and put to death without trial on an old charge of treason.

4. **Monmouth Crushed.**—A few days before, the Duke of Monmouth had landed at Lyme, in Dorset,

and was received with great enthusiasm by the poor people. He issued a proclamation, in which he laid claim to the English crown. But gradually the royal troops closed round him; and at *Sedgemoor*, about three miles from Bridgwater, Monmouth was utterly defeated. The ill-armed peasants, who fought with great bravery, were cut down by the trained veterans of Churchill, the future Duke of Marlborough, and Monmouth fled for his life. He was caught in the New Forest and taken to London for execution.

**5. The Bloody Assizes.** — The fugitives were hunted down and put to death by James's soldiers; and he then sent Judge Jeffreys into the west to try all prisoners. Several hundreds of innocent people were hanged (among them the aged Lady Lisle), and others were sent to the West Indies as slaves. The terrible vengeance of the *Bloody Assizes* was one of the worst acts of this cruel king.

**6. Revocation of the Edict of Nantes (1685).** — From this time James began to carry out his design of becoming the tyrant of England more openly than before. Louis had at last displayed his object in France by revoking the *Edict of Nantes* (1685), under which the Protestant worship had been allowed by Henry IV. His dragoons were let loose on the people to compel them to abjure their worship. Thousands fled from the country, and the Dutch and English Protestants saw that the moment was come when they must make a stand for their religion or see it extinguished.

**7. Catholicism in England.** — Meanwhile James hoped to form an army of Roman Catholics, with whose aid he also could crush the Protestants and make himself absolute. A large mass of troops on Hounslow Heath threatened London, and the Earl of Tyrconnel was sent to raise soldiers among the Catholic Irish.

Gradually, in breach of the *Test Act*, Catholics were placed over the regiments; they were given rich appointments in the Church, and received into the king's council. The clergy were forbidden to argue against the "King's Religion." The great nobles were commanded to change their faith, or forfeit their offices. Finally, in defiance of numerous statutes, a *Declaration of Indulgence* was issued by the king, by



MEDAL STRUCK IN HONOUR OF THE  
SEVEN BISHOPS.

which all men were allowed to worship as they pleased (1687). The king's object was to bribe the Nonconformists to aid him in his indulgence to the Catholics. Yet however just such an act of toleration would seem now, it was Parliament alone which had power to amend the existing law, and the Nonconformists them-

selves resisted the Indulgence. Similar measures were enforced by James in Scotland and in Ireland.

**8. Trial of the Seven Bishops.**—Seven bishops refused to read this obnoxious declaration in their churches, and were backed up by the London clergy. They were sent to prison and soon afterwards brought to trial, but the jury returned a verdict of "not guilty." Great was the rejoicing among the good citizens of London; even the soldiers in the royal camp could not suppress their shouts of joy in the very presence of the king. In the midst of this excite-

ment a son was born to James, and it was seen that the hated race of Stuart was not destined, as men hoped, to die out.

9. **William of Orange.**—The leaders of the Whig party, now driven to despair, resolved to summon William of Orange, who had so gallantly saved Holland from the French, to come and help them. He felt it his duty to respond to their call, for his wife Mary was, as the daughter of James, the successor to the throne, if, as many believed, the newly born child was not the son of the king and queen. Besides, he knew that until James was overthrown it would be impossible that the English would join him in the Grand Alliance which he was forming to resist the dangerous aggression of Louis XIV. In March, 1688, therefore, William landed in Torbay.

10. **Flight of James** (1688).—James was unprepared for resistance. He advanced, indeed, against his son-in-law, but whole regiments deserted to William, through the treachery of Sir John Churchill; and the miserable king, after smuggling his wife and child to France, tried to follow them. He was stopped, and lingered irresolutely near London, while William entered the capital in triumph. But there was no wish to keep James as a prisoner in England, and before long he was allowed to fly across the Channel, and he never returned to England again.



## Part III.

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### INTRODUCTION.

1. The Revolution of 1688 marks the final establishment of the right of the English nation to pronounce, through its representatives in Parliament, by what rulers, by what laws, and on what conditions it would be governed. For nearly four centuries (1295—1688) Parliament had been established as the National Assembly, and had been accepted as the representative of the national will.\* But during that period the kings still claimed to retain their ancient position as the rulers of the nation, while the Parliament endeavoured to assert the supremacy of the national laws over the king himself, and the necessity of its own consent to any change in those laws, to all taxation, and finally to the whole manner of government. The kings asserted that such privileges were granted to the nation only by royal favour, and could be therefore limited or withdrawn. The Parliament declared that they were the national rights of the English people, before which the king himself must give way. Sometimes the people inclined to one side, and sometimes to the other. High-

\* A summary of the course of English History previous to 1295, and of the gradual growth of Parliament, will be found on pages 131—134.

minded and law-abiding kings they loved, and would lay down life and fortune for them. Parliament, too, sometimes proved as selfish and tyrannical as the worst of kings; at others it allowed itself to be corrupted, bribed, and intimidated by the sovereign. The people, however, never lost their determination to be governed lawfully; and when all other means failed, they found leaders and raised the standard of revolt. In these four hundred years Edward II., Richard II., Henry VI., Richard III., Charles I., and James II. were in turn driven from their thrones for their misgovernment.

2. The royal power had been at its height in the reign of Henry VIII., when the Commons without a murmur allowed the king to become Supreme Head of the Church, to squander the wealth of the monasteries among his courtiers, to raise money by forced loans, to make laws by his own proclamation, and to leave the kingdom by will to whomsoever he pleased; but it was in that reign that the Reformation, with all its far-reaching results, began to work in England.

3. There were several signs during the reign of Elizabeth that Parliament was recovering its independence. A religious party, known as the Puritans, arose in the House of Commons, who protested boldly, though in vain, against the queen's stern laws against the Dissenters, and in 1601 she was compelled, at the demand of Parliament, to make her courtiers surrender some of their obnoxious privileges. James Stuart, a Scotchman who knew little of English politics, succeeded her. He began to treat the Commons with the utmost contempt, and on one occasion imprisoned several of the most outspoken among them. His unfortunate son, Charles I., attempted from the first to overrule his Parliaments, and when he found that such a course of action was impossible, he tried to do without them altogether. In the end he was defeated; Parliament had taken up



arms against him in the *Great Rebellion*, and at length condemned him to death.

4. The rule of Oliver Cromwell hardly affected the course of Parliamentary history. The nation was utterly unsettled. Everything was in disorder, and when he died things relapsed into their old condition. Charles II., a far more crafty man than his father, by slow and stealthy steps crushed the opposition of the towns and secured uncontrolled power. But Parliament proved able guardians of the liberties of the nation. When James II. attempted to accomplish by violent and headstrong means what his brother had set about with caution, the nation summoned William of Orange to its aid. King James fled, fearing his father's fate. The Revolution was peacefully completed, and thenceforth the English nation begins to carry out gradually in every direction the principles of religious and civil liberty which were then established.

5. Henceforward the power of the nation to govern itself through Parliament being established, the conflict ceased, and the kings of England entered upon a new position. It is their office to be the leaders, though not the rulers, of the nation. Since the Revolution of 1688, therefore, the National Will, or what we call general *Public Opinion*, has been acknowledged as the real ruler of the realm, and we have to trace how this has gradually extended its authority to every part of the government. At the Revolution, Parliament only partially represented the National Will. Only members of the Church of England could sit there; only possessors of land and members of town corporations could vote in the elections; so that there were large masses of the nation whose opinions were only expressed in clamour and agitation. We have to see how these defects gradually pass away. Again, Public Opinion has often led the kingdom astray by being excitable,

violent, fickle, ignorant, and misinformed. Remedies for these dangers also had to grow up, in the wider knowledge, clearer reasoning, and sounder judgment which are being gradually established through the spread of Education and the Press. All these processes, commenced at the Revolution, are still in progress. The further development of them, the improvement of the condition of every class at home, and the safety of our own country and of our dependencies abroad, is the object of modern *Politics*.

6. It was not only the Constitution which the power of public opinion had changed during those four hundred years. In the Middle Ages men's religion and their beliefs about this whole universe amidst which we live, had been as fixed as their laws. But gradually men learnt to *think* and argue for themselves, and thence sprang the Reformation, and all the discoveries of modern science; which in turn set forces in motion which are still working themselves out in modern England.

7. At the Revolution the Church of England had indeed been itself reformed, but it was still the only legal religion, to which every Englishman was forced to conform. The movement started by Martin Luther, however, had to go further. Gradually the right of every man to believe and worship as he pleased had to be admitted.

8. Moreover, the Reformation had given to England a position amongst other nations which thenceforth directed all our foreign policy. For it had divided Europe into two camps—the Protestant and the Catholic—which were constantly at war. Till the Revolution the kings of England had often endeavoured, against the people's wish, to draw the nation to the Catholic side, but thenceforth England became the leader of the Protestant party. France, on the other hand, was the

champion of the Catholics, whilst steadfastly aiming at the subjugation of all the neighbouring kingdoms; and thus there sprang up that perpetual rivalry between England and France, which, until recent times, was the source of almost all our foreign undertakings.

9. Out of this strife with France, again, grew the vast foreign empire of England. At the Revolution the possessions of England in America and in India were of small importance. In both continents France and the Catholic powers seemed likely to grow far more powerful. But in the wars that followed, the English became absolutely supreme both in North America and in India, and extended their colonies and their conquests all over the earth.

10. Meanwhile the study of modern science, which commenced with Lord Bacon in the early part of the seventeenth century, began after the Revolution to change the face of England and the lives and habits of all who dwell in it. The varied riches and the inexhaustible forces of Nature have been one by one discovered and made useful for the service of men. Machinery has been invented which saves man's labour at every turn. With the Revolution the English began to grow in numbers, in intelligence, in wealth, and in power. Villages have grown into towns—towns into great cities—in which all the natural conditions of man's life are altered. This tremendous transformation in English history is still advancing with great rapidity. It has given rise to many *social* questions which now demand the attention of statesmen not less than constitutional questions have hitherto.



**WILLIAM III. (B. 1650 ; D. 1702).**

## **CHAPTER I.**

### **THE REVOLUTION.**

1. The flight of James left the Whig party, whose chiefs had invited William to England, completely triumphant. There was considerable doubt, however, as to what course it would be prudent to pursue. Some wished that James should continue to be king, but in name alone, and that William should rule England for him; others wished to place the crown on the head of the

Princess Mary. She, however, being a wise lady, would not consent to rule alone, and so William and Mary were chosen joint sovereigns of England. Then the Whig leaders drew up a declaration, known as the *Declaration of Right*, which put a stop to the evils which had existed under James, to the claim of the king to *dispense* with particular laws, to unlawful taxes, and to the maintenance of a large army.

2. **Revolts of the Jacobites.**—Hardly had William accepted the crown, and formed a ministry from the leaders of both the Whig and Tory parties, when he received the unwelcome news that the *Jacobites*, as the followers of James were called, had risen against the new Government both in Scotland and in Ireland.

3. **Killiecrankie** (1689).—In Scotland the rebellion was never very serious, for the nation had not forgotten what it had suffered under the Stuarts. They hailed the arrival of William with great joy, and the Presbyterian worship was once more established. The leader of the few who adhered to James was Graham of Claverhouse, now Earl of Dundee, who had been the cruel persecutor of the Covenanters. General Mackay, who commanded the loyal troops, met Dundee in the narrow pass of *Killiecrankie*; and, though the wild Highlanders swept the English troops before them, Dundee fell in the hour of victory. The clans, left without a leader, were slowly reduced to order.

4. **Massacre of Glencoe** (1692).—A proclamation was issued offering pardon to all who, by a certain day, would swear to obey the new Government. All the Highland chiefs took this oath except Macdonald of Glencoe; but a week later he also tendered his allegiance. Dalrymple, the English governor, deceived William as to the true facts of the case, and a regiment of soldiers fell upon the Macdonalds, murdered some forty of them in cold blood, and burnt their villages.

**5. Revolt of Ireland.**—Meanwhile the Catholics in Ireland had risen in every province, appropriating or destroying the property of their Protestant neighbours, who fled in terror to the towns of Enniskillen and Londonderry. At the invitation of Tyrconnel, the leader of the Irish Catholics, James himself came over from France, and consented to bestow the great part of the island on the native Irish.



VIEW OF LONDONDERRY.

**6. Siege of Londonderry (1689).**—The Protestants in Londonderry and Enniskillen held out with the courage of despair. After a terrible siege, some English ships sailed up the river Foyle, and, throwing provisions into Londonderry, saved it when on the brink of surrender. The forces of James were, at the same time, driven off from Enniskillen. Nevertheless, the English army, under General Schomberg, proved still unable to reduce the country to obedience.

**7. Battle of the Boyne (1690).**—William, therefore, himself took command of the army. He met the forces of James on the banks of the river Boyne, on July 1st, 1690, and after a fierce fight triumphed.

James sought safety in flight, and sailed to France, never again to set foot on any of his former dominions. The beaten Irish retreated to Limerick; and there, ably commanded by a brave gentleman named Patrick Sarsfield, resisted courageously. William was now obliged to return to England to prepare for a campaign against France in Flanders, and he left the army in Ireland under a Dutch general named Ginkell.

**8. Interference of France.**—For Louis, resolved to re-establish his Catholic ally, had declared war. At first he was successful. The allies of England were defeated on the Continent, and a few days before the battle of the Boyne the English and Dutch fleets were defeated off Beachy Head; and the French, landing in Devonshire, burnt Teignmouth. Louis now sent fresh troops to rescue Ireland from the Protestants. The French general, St. Ruth, drilled and disciplined the rude Irish. Ginkell, however, proved more than a match for him. He drove the French and Irish from Athlone, and again from a strong position on the hill of Aghrim, whither they had retreated. In this battle St. Ruth was slain. Sarsfield alone upheld the dying hopes of the Irish. He betook himself to Limerick, and that town prepared to stand a second siege. But the courage of the troops was utterly broken, and Sarsfield, seeing that it was useless to continue the struggle, surrendered in the October of 1691, and was allowed to sail with many other Irish to France, where they took service in the armies of Louis XIV. So ended, with the *Treaty of Limerick* (1691), the Jacobite attempt in Ireland.

**9. Discontent in England.**—Meanwhile William found the government of England a task of no small difficulty. Many of the clergy were very discontented, and refused to take the oaths of obedience to the king and queen. The Whigs in Parliament

seemed inclined to thwart William's plans, and exact vengeance upon the conquered Tory party, which so disgusted William that he threatened to retire to Holland and leave England to its fate. Some of the country gentry also began to plot against the king. The guilty men, however, among whom was Lord Clarendon, the queen's uncle, were pardoned. Again, during William's absence on the Continent, Lord Marlborough proposed to persuade William to get rid of the Dutch troops, and then by means of the English army to place James, as he said, or the Princess Anne, as he meant, on the throne. Marlborough was disgraced and deprived of his offices, and the Princess Anne, who seems to have shared his schemes, was dismissed from the court.

**10. William and Louis XIV.**—William's campaigns against the French in Flanders were for a long time unsuccessful. He gradually built up *The Grand Alliance* of all the States which were threatened by Louis' ambition, but their united armies still proved too weak to overpower him. William was driven back before the town of Mons. It was by sea and not by land that the chief success was gained against Louis XIV. Early in 1692 two large French fleets were ready to invade England and restore James; it was thought that Lord Russell, the English admiral, would betray the English ships into their hands. But Russell, indignant at a declaration of James that if successful he would punish severely all who had taken part against him in 1688, determined to be true to William and Mary. He met Tourville off *La Hogue*, and defeated him with great loss.

**11. English Reverses.**—This success, however, stood alone. The great town of *Namur* fell before the French, and the Dutch and English troops were defeated at the battle of *Steinkirk*. In the following year William



was again defeated by Marshal Luxemburg at *Landen*, and a large fleet of merchant vessels was captured by the French admirals off the coast of Spain. But France was now completely exhausted by her efforts. "The country," wrote one of Louis' advisers, "is one vast hospital." And Louis, finding that France was unable to supply him with money or soldiers, began to wish for peace.

### 12. The Whigs in Power.—

William's efforts, however, were impeded by a divided and discontented Parliament. The Tories resisted the prosecution of the war; so William, who saw that the power of Louis must be crushed at all cost, dismissed his Tory ministers and chose Whigs in their place. The commercial party meanwhile trusted William and stoutly supported the Whigs. At the suggestion of a young statesman named Montague a



LADY AND GENTLEMAN OF THE TIME OF  
WILLIAM AND MARY.

loan was raised, which proved the beginning of what is now known as the *National Debt*, by a company of men who became in 1694 the Bank of England.

**13. The Death of Queen Mary.**—In December, 1694, a great sorrow fell upon William. His wife, Queen Mary, whom he had tenderly loved, died of small-pox. Heartbroken at the loss, William did not allow his grief to overmaster him, but continued to manage the affairs of England with courage and patience, though from henceforth he ruled alone.

## CHAPTER II.

## WILLIAM III.

1. **The Junto.**—The Whigs, now in sole possession of the king's confidence, applied themselves with zeal to end the war. One of the Tory chiefs, the Duke of Leeds, who, as Lord Danby, had been a minister of Charles II., was discovered to have received bribes from a company which had been lately formed for the management of India, and was ignominiously expelled from office. The ministry (now formed for the first time wholly of one party) received from its enemies the name of the *Junto*—a word meaning, like Cabal, a band of conspirators. Soon afterwards the good spirits of the English nation were restored by the news that William had gained a great victory over the French in Flanders, having taken the town of Namur; and the king returned in triumph to London (1695).

2. **The Plots of Berwick and Barclay.**—The king was now greatly in want of money, Government having called in the gold and silver in England for recoinage. Besides this, the Duke of Berwick, an ardent Jacobite, came over in secret to England, and tried to persuade the gentry to rise; while another and darker plot was formed by one Sir George Barclay, with the object of murdering William as he returned from hunting. But his design was betrayed; the ringleaders were seized and executed, and it was discovered that Admiral Russell, Lord Marlborough, and Lord Godolphin had been promising to desert William if James would invade England with a French army. The king once more forgave his treacherous ministers.

3. **Treaty of Ryswick** (1697).—Louis XIV. had stationed an army on the coast to invade England

in the event of their success, but he was induced by their failure and the misfortunes of his armies on the Continent to make offers of peace to William, which led to the *Treaty of Ryswick*. Louis abandoned for the time his schemes of conquest. He agreed to acknowledge him as King of England, and the Princess Anne as his successor.

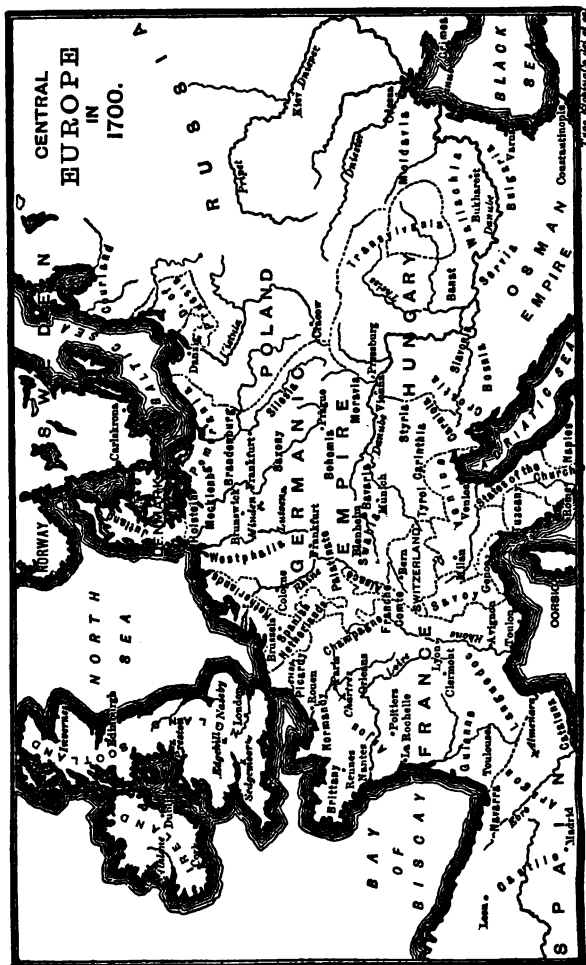
**4. The Spanish Succession.**—A question of the utmost importance to the peace of Europe still remained undecided: Who was to be the next King of Spain? Charles II., a miserable and idiotic man, was at the point of death, and he had no children. It was feared that Louis of France would seize the crown for his grandson Philip, and so bring all the forces of Spain to aid in his dangerous projects. William, however, and the other sovereigns of Western Europe, persuaded the Spanish king to make a will wherein his cousin Joseph, son of the Elector of Bavaria, was declared the heir to his dominions. Unfortunately, Joseph died, and the sovereigns, urged on by William, chose Charles, the son of the Emperor of Germany, as candidate for the throne. But the dying King of Spain would not brook such interference. By his last will he made the grandson of Louis his heir, and in spite of all previous treaties, Philip, supported by French arms, took possession of his great dominions in 1700.

**5. The Tories in Power.**—Meanwhile the Whig Parliament had given place to a new one, in which the Tories were the stronger. They insisted upon peace and the reduction of the army. The Commons had already compelled the king to reduce the army to 10,000 men, and they now proposed to reduce it still further, and requested the king to dismiss his Dutch guards, who had served him long and faithfully. The insult—for it was no less—made the king very angry. Again he threatened to leave England, but the en-

treaties of Somers, the Lord Chancellor, induced him to remain.

6. The triumphant Tories began to attack the ministers. Admiral Russell, Montague, and Somers were accused of mismanagement, and of receiving valuable gifts of money and lands; but the last statesman, who throughout his life was free from all taint of corruption, was triumphantly acquitted. They then began to attack the king's Dutch favourites, of whom Bentinck, Earl of Portland, was the most able. These men had received large gifts of land in Ireland, and now the Commons passed a Bill, known as the *Resumption Bill*, which compelled the king to take away these lands; and, in spite of the strong opposition of the Whigs in the House of Lords, the measure was carried out. In order to carry on the government at all, William was now compelled to rid himself of his Whig friends and gather round him a Tory ministry, with Lord Rochester, the late queen's uncle—an honest but narrow-minded man—as its chief.

7. **The Act of Succession** (1702).—Anne, the sister of Mary, and daughter of James II., was now heir to the throne, but the death of the last of her many children left no one to reign after her. Except Anne, all the living descendants of Charles I. were Roman Catholics. Parliament, therefore, passed them all over, and chose Sophia (the grand-daughter of James I., and widow of the Elector of Hanover) and her descendants to succeed to the throne; but they added to the Bill several clauses which greatly bound down the royal power, and were at the same time rebukes on William's government. Foreigners were not to hold positions of trust, nor receive grants of land; the sovereign must be a member of the Church of England, and not act without the advice of his Privy Council, nor leave the kingdom without the permission of Parliament.



### 8. The Deaths of James II. and William.—

With a Parliament jealous of himself, and opposed to all further war, William was powerless to resist the faithless seizure of the Spanish crown. But as the further designs of Louis showed themselves, the nation again saw the wisdom of William's statesmanship, and the necessity of supporting him at any sacrifice. Daniel Defoe, the author of "Robinson Crusoe," drew up a memorial expressing confidence in the king, which was eagerly signed by thousands; and when, upon the death of the fugitive James II., Louis proclaimed his son Prince James Edward King of England, all classes of Englishmen resented his attempt thus to impose a sovereign upon them by his will. They showed every sign of affection for the king, who proceeded to dismiss many of his Tory ministers and appoint Whigs in their stead. The new Parliament passed a Bill by which they pledged themselves never to accept a son of James for their king. It seemed probable that William would take the field against France at the head of a large army; but one day, while riding, he was thrown from his horse, and the shock proved fatal to his feeble life (1702.)

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## CHAPTER III.

### THE WAR OF THE SPANISH SUCCESSION.

1. **Anne** (1702—1714).—The reign of Queen Anne was, in many respects, glorious. English soldiers won great victories against the armies of France. England and Scotland were now finally united into a single kingdom. The reign was also famous for great writers, whose works are read even now by all educated men and women. Chief amongst them was the poet Alexander Pope, whose rhymed verse attained an elegance and finish till

then unknown in England. Jonathan Swift, a bold political writer, gave to the world "*Gulliver's Travels*," in which he held up to scorn the follies and vices of his times; while Joseph Addison and Richard Steele, in a journal called the *Spectator*, wrote pleasant and popular essays on the minds and manners of men.

2. **Sway of Marlborough** (1702—1708).—The glories of the reign, however, were but little due to



LADY OF THE TIME OF QUEEN ANNE.

any talents of the queen herself. She was a person of rather weak character. She was always ruled by favourites, and during the greater part of her life she placed her confidence in Sarah, the wife of the Duke of Marlborough. She had been persuaded by this beautiful but passionate woman to desert her father, King James, when William of Orange invaded England; and in 1702, when Anne

herself ascended the throne, Sarah and her husband became completely powerful. Her first ministers were almost all Tories, except Lord Godolphin, who resolutely supported Marlborough, and, as Lord High Treasurer, provided supplies for the war. Marlborough's former acts of treachery were forgotten; he was entrusted with the entire conduct of the Alliance of England, Holland, and the Empire founded by William against France, and was, at the end of the first campaign, given a dukedom. Many of the lesser German princes joined the Grand Alliance of the

new queen, which was further strengthened by the adhesion of the Duke of Savoy and the King of Portugal in the following year.

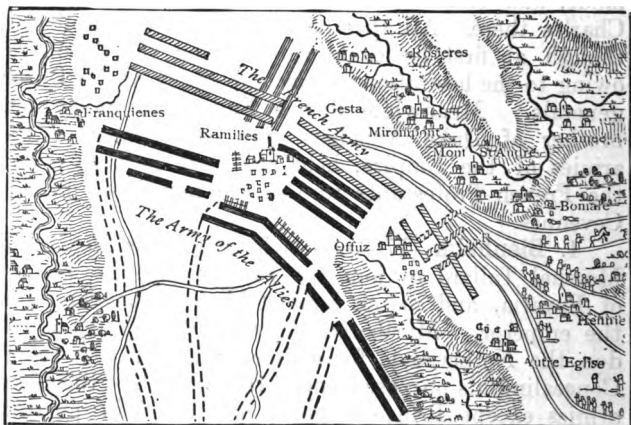
3. Soon the war broke out on all sides, but for the first two years no great battle was fought. The object of Marlborough was to defend Holland from the French, to drive them from the Spanish Netherlands, and establish the authority of the Archduke Charles there. All this he in the end accomplished, though at first he could act only on the defensive, owing to the hesitation and incompetency of the Dutch generals. Meanwhile Prince Eugene of Savoy, the brother of Duke Amadeus, and commander of the armies of the Empire, held his own in Italy; and the French Protestants rose in the mountains of the Cevennes.

4. **Blenheim** (1704).—At length Louis despatched Marshal Tallard to join the French ally, the Elector of Bavaria, and march against Vienna, the capital of the emperor. Marlborough saw that he must abandon the Netherlands for a time, and fly to the relief. Concealing his purpose from all the generals of the allied armies except Prince Eugene, he started in pursuit. Eugene joined him at Hochstadt, on the Danube, and on August 13th the allies met the French and Bavarians near the village of *Blenheim*. There a great victory was won by the superior skill of Marlborough, and the German Empire was thus saved from ruin.

5. **The War in Spain**.—While thus beating back the French from Holland and from Germany, England, in conjunction with Portugal, was making less successful efforts to recover Spain from the French armies and to establish Charles. Three weeks before the victory of Blenheim, Admiral Rooke took Gibraltar, at the entrance of the Mediterranean—a conquest which England still holds. The Portuguese, however, were defeated by the



Duke of Berwick, and the Savoyards by the Duke of Vendome. In the following year the Earl of Peterborough, a clever but eccentric man, took the town of Barcelona from King Philip with a mere handful of soldiers, and when the French tried to retake it, brought up the English fleet and drove them off. Madrid was for a time occupied by the allies (1706),



PLAN OF THE BATTLE OF RAMILLIES.

but though the north of Spain was against King Philip, the remainder of the country was as strongly in his favour; and he remained unshaken on his throne.

6. **Ramillies** (1706).—The second great battle of the war was fought at *Ramillies* in Brabant, and again Marlborough and his allies gained a complete victory. The results of this victory were even more important than those of *Blenheim*: the French were driven back to their own country, and Belgium, as it is now called, was taken from the French King of Spain. Louis, fearing that France would be invaded,

withdrew many of his troops from thence, and Prince Eugene, who had been hard pressed, was now able to defeat the French before Turin, and drive them out of Italy.

**7. Peace Rejected.**—Louis saw that he could not contend against the allies, and offered to withdraw his aid from Spain and surrender all his conquests; but the Whigs, who were now in power, would assent to peace only on condition that Louis should himself drive his grandson from the throne of Spain. From that time the fortunes of Louis revived. The great victories of *Oudenarde* (1708) and *Malplaquet* (1709) indeed were gained, but their real results were inconsiderable, and in the end the allies were obliged to put up with conditions far less favourable than those which they had rejected after the battle of Ramillies. The German princes were beaten on the Rhine; Prince Eugene in the south of France; and, worse than all, the English army under Lord Galway, in Spain, was utterly defeated by the Duke of Berwick at *Almanza* (1707.)

**8. The Pretender's Expedition** (1708).—Louis now resolved to carry out his design of establishing James's son—the Pretender, as he was called—on the English throne. A fleet and 4,000 soldiers were prepared. Unfortunately, the young prince fell ill just as the expedition was to set sail, and during the delay the English Government heard of it. The Pretender, however, eluded the English ships, and appeared off the coast of Scotland; but finding that his friends were not prepared to rise, he retired much discouraged, and with difficulty escaped to France.

**9. Conclusion of War.**—Marlborough's victories at *Oudenarde* and *Malplaquet* prevented any further attempt, but the latter cost the allies a fifth of their number; and the French were able to retreat at their leisure. This was the last great battle in which

Marlborough was engaged. He continued on the Continent for two years longer, and held his own against Villars with ease; but both the queen and the country were tired of the war. A ministry who wished for peace with France came into power. Marlborough was recalled, and soon afterwards all the English troops were ordered to England.

10. **Marlborough's Home Policy.**—The support which Marlborough so far had received from England was due to his great influence with Anne, and to the skill with which he persuaded her to dismiss in turn each minister who opposed the war. Like William III., Marlborough wished to rank himself in neither political party. His only political object was to combine all classes of the nation in the deadly struggle against the aggression of Louis XIV. The queen was at heart a Tory, of which party her uncle, Lord Rochester, was one of the most extreme men. The Tories, however, were adverse to the war, and divided the nation by their bitter antagonism to the Nonconformists. Gradually Marlborough and Godolphin drew away from them. By degrees Rochester and his friends were dismissed, and more moderate politicians, chief among whom was Robert Harley, were given office in their stead.

11. Finding from the elections of 1705 that the nation was strongly in favour of the Whig party, who wished to extend the privileges of Nonconformists and to persevere in the war, Marlborough induced Anne to admit several Whigs to the ministry, the first of whom was his son-in-law, Lord Sunderland (1706). He had now a ministry composed of both parties alike, but its leaders could not be induced to agree; and Harley, who was a cunning man, began to think how he might turn out the present ministry and form one of his own. Nor was he long in finding an instrument; for Queen

Anne was getting rather tired of the Duchess of Marlborough and her violent temper, and had already taken as her new favourite Mrs. Masham, a cousin of Harley. By her means he excited the queen's jealousy of the ecclesiastical views of the ministry, and persuaded her to appoint several bishops without consulting them. But Harley had misjudged his strength. The Whigs refused to support the ministry while he belonged to it, and they proved too strong not only for Harley, but for Marlborough himself. They drove out Harley and the Tories, and formed a ministry entirely of their own party (1705).

12. **The Union with Scotland (1707).**—During these struggles for power the union between the kingdoms of England and Scotland was completed, through the efforts of Lord Somers. The danger of the existence of two kingdoms with two Parliaments under one sovereign had been clearly seen ever since the reign of James I., and both Oliver Cromwell and William III. had wished to join the representatives of England and Scotland in one Parliament, but they had both failed; for many of the Scotch thought that the ancient glories of their country would be gone for ever, and the Scotch Parliament bitterly resisted being abolished as a separate assembly. Though the kingdoms now became one, the Churches remained separate, and there was to be no alteration in the Presbyterian constitution of the Church of Scotland. The Scotch laws also remained unchanged. The Peers were to elect sixteen of their number as their representatives in the House of Lords. Forty-five Scotch members, a number since increased to sixty, were to be elected to serve in the House of Commons. The crosses of St. George and St. Andrew were introduced into the national flag, and it was known as the Union Jack; the cross of St. Patrick was added on the union with Ireland.

**13. Fall of the Whigs (1710).**—The Whig ministry were in power for a very short time. Marlborough and his wife had entirely lost the royal favour, and when the ministry foolishly brought to trial a clergyman named Sacheverell, who had preached a violent sermon against Whig doctrines, the nation, thinking that the man was being persecuted, took his part with great enthusiasm. The queen, thereupon, seeing how unpopular the Whigs had become, dismissed Godolphin and called upon Harley to form a ministry. He was joined by Lord Rochester and Henry St. John.

**14. The Treaty of Utrecht (1713).**—Immediately the new ministry began to reverse all the plans of the Whigs. The Whigs had been eager for the war; the Tories resolved to bring it to a close, many of them desiring peace with France as a step towards the restoration of the Stuarts on the death of the childless Anne. Besides, the Archduke Charles, on the death of his father, had himself become Emperor of Germany (1711), and it appeared that he would be not less dangerously powerful as King of Spain than the French prince. The English ministry treated secretly with the French king without consulting the Dutch or the other allies of England. Marlborough was accused of peculation and dismissed from the command of the army. The duchess was compelled to leave the royal palace; and shortly afterwards, Marlborough being abroad, the terms of the peace of *Utrecht* were made public. Philip remained on the Spanish throne, but he lost the possessions of former kings of Spain in Italy and Belgium, which went to Charles, and England gained Gibraltar, Minorca, and the island of Newfoundland.

## CHAPTER IV.

## STRUGGLE OF THE WHIGS AND THE JACOBITES.

1. **Intrigues with the Stuarts.**—Anne was in failing health, her husband, Rochester, and all her children were dead; and during the few months that remained of her solitary life the Tory ministers were employed in dark plots, the object of which was to place James Edward on the throne on the death of his sister Anne, with the help of a French army. The legal successors, the Electress Sophia of Hanover and her son George, were friends of the Whigs, who began to make careful preparations to secure the government for them; while Harley and St. John sent messages of friendship to the Pretender—as Prince James was now called—whom they hoped to persuade to give up the Roman Catholic religion. This, however, he would not do; and Harley, who was always an undecided man, grew cold towards the Pretender. St. John, now Lord Bolingbroke, who cared nothing for religion, therefore resolved to drive Harley from the ministry, and form a new Government consisting entirely of Jacobites. A violent quarrel took place between the two statesmen in the presence of the queen, and then Harley was dismissed from office.

2. **Death of Anne (1714).**—But Bolingbroke had no time to complete his plans. He had not formed a ministry, he was not sure of the army, and he needed several months to make all things safe for the return of King James III., as the Jacobites styled the Pretender. Suddenly the queen, who had long been in ill-health, died; the Whig lords took possession of the government for the legal successor. Sophia of Hanover had died shortly before. Her son George, the Elector of



Anne; and his brother, the Duke of Orleans, who was ruling for the late king's little grandson, Louis XV., was disposed to keep on good terms with the English Government. Nevertheless, the Pretender sent the Earl of Mar to raise an army of Highlanders and to invade England. Slipping past the English commander, the Duke of Argyle, Mar reached the south of Scotland. Part of his army was then detached to invade England. It wandered aimlessly along, the Highlanders deserting in great numbers as soon as the Scotch border was crossed, until it arrived at Preston, in Lancashire, where the Jacobites were surrounded by the royal troops and compelled to surrender.

6. Mar fell in with Argyle on a down called Sheriffmuir, near Stirling, and being defeated, retired northward to Perth. At this point the Pretender arrived in Scotland, and proclaimed himself king. But he had arrived too late; Argyle marched upon him, and Mar and the Pretender selfishly abandoned their followers, and fled to France. The English Government was merciful, but Lords Derwentwater and Kenmure suffered execution.

7. **Septennial Act** (1716).—The prolongation of Charles II.'s Parliament had led to the *Triennial Act* of 1694, which had limited the duration of a Parliament to three years. But in consequence of the excitement caused by the Rebellion, it was resolved by the *Septennial Act* to continue the Parliament then sitting, and limit its existence to seven years instead of three. This is the present law, though, on the advice of the Prime Minister, it can be dissolved by the sovereign at any time before that date.

8. **Intrigues of the Jacobites.**—Though crushed, the Jacobites had still many friends in the country, and they continued to intrigue with every enemy of England. France helped them no longer, but King



Charles XII. of Sweden, a daring and ambitious man, joined Alberoni, the minister of Philip V. of Spain, in a scheme to establish the Pretender in England.

9. It was in opposition to these men, and to uphold the state of Europe as established by the Treaty of Utrecht, that George I. and Stanhope formed the *Triple Alliance* (1717) between England, France, and Holland, which, by the addition of Germany, was enlarged into the *Quadruple Alliance* (1718). Charles XII. died in that year. The Spanish fleet was utterly defeated by Admiral Byng; the French generals won victory after victory in the north of Spain, while an expedition, intending to act in the Pretender's favour, was dispersed by storm in the Bay of Biscay. Philip V. was compelled to dismiss Alberoni, and peace was restored to Europe (1720).

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## CHAPTER V.

### THE MINISTRY OF WALPOLE (1721—1742).

1. **The South Sea Bubble.**—Though England was now relieved from danger abroad, a terrible calamity befell her at home. The South Sea Company had originally been established by Harley, receiving the monopoly of the trade privileges conceded by Spain in the Treaty of Utrecht in return for a large loan to the Government (1711). It now further undertook to arrange for the discharge of the outstanding debts of the Government by a further loan (1720). There was nothing dishonest in the scheme, and Government, which had previously been paying about eight per cent., was now to pay five and ultimately four per cent. All the world, however, thought that fortunes were to be made through the South Sea Company. There was

a rush to buy shares in it; £100 shares were bought for £1,000. Soon the spirit of gambling spread in other directions. Presently the bubble burst, and thousands were ruined; Parliament was compelled to interfere and suppress the company, punishing the directors, who were found to have even bribed the ministry. Among the ministers implicated was Lord Sunderland, Walpole's chief enemy, and even Stanhope was accused. Walpole was left, for the remainder of George I.'s reign, as sole and unrivalled leader of the Whig party, with his brother-in-law Townshend, and an overwhelming majority in Parliament, to support him (1721).

2. **Walpole's Policy.**—For twenty-one years Walpole ruled England. He held his place by securing with lavish bribes the support of the corrupt Whig majority in Parliament, whilst he won the confidence of the nation by his skill in finance, his sound sense and judgment, and his sagacious foreign policy. He avoided war; he stimulated trade by lightening taxation; he declined to enforce the intolerant laws against Nonconformists and Catholics. He was threatened by foreign intrigues, of which Ripperda, the Spanish minister, was the centre, and which had for their object the recovery of Gibraltar and Minorca for Spain, and the re-establishment of the Stuarts. But Walpole skilfully defeated them, and knit England, France, and Prussia into an unassailable alliance for mutual defence by the *Treaty of Hanover* (1725). The Emperor Charles, who had no son, and who wished, therefore, that his daughter, Maria Theresa, should succeed him in his dominions, hastened to insure this by making terms with England; and thus peace was established between the nations.

3. **Jacobite Plot.**—During the disturbances which followed the failure of the South Sea Company, the Jacobites made fresh preparations for an invasion of

England. But this only made Walpole stronger, and created a deep distrust of the Tory party, of which Bolingbroke was now again the head. The Jacobites had been promised help from Spain; but the Duke of Orleans, true to his policy of keeping on friendly terms with England, at once informed the English Government of their designs, and the movement was crushed without bloodshed.

4. **Accession of George II.** (1727—1760).—The death of George I. threatened for a moment to shake Walpole's supremacy. The court was full of politicians jealous of his power; but Queen Caroline, a beautiful and clever woman, quickly saw that it was necessary for the king to have Walpole on his side, so she persuaded her husband to accept his services, and throughout her life continued to be that minister's kind friend and supporter.

5. **Growth of Opposition.**—The Opposition, or *Patriots*, as they called themselves, grew yearly stronger, however, under Bolingbroke's guidance. Walpole's proud temper caused him to quarrel with any man whom he regarded as his rival in any way. Lord Carteret, William Pulteney, Lord Chesterfield, one of the grandest gentlemen of his time, and even Lord Townshend, who had been Walpole's faithful friend in prosperity and adversity, all left the ministry one after another, and Walpole was compelled to rely on second-rate men, such as Lord Newcastle, who was both silly and quarrelsome. The House of Commons still remained obedient to Walpole so long as he had power to bribe them. The Patriots were much strengthened by the support of the Prince of Wales. He was a weak and frivolous young man. He had lately been married, and demanded an increased allowance; but this the king would not permit. Walpole and his followers voted against it, which led to a bitter

enmity between the prince and the Government (1737).

6. **Walpole Driven from Office (1742).**—Walpole's peace policy, however, grew unpopular. English sailors were shamefully used by the Spaniards in America, and the country grew angry at Walpole's inactivity. The king, who was a brave man himself, grew weary of peace, and was supported in his views by the Duke of Newcastle, always ready to desert his friends when they were in adversity. In vain did Walpole struggle against this growing desire for war. He attempted to come to an arrangement with Spain, by which they were to pay a fine for the damage which had been done to English ships; but when this became known the Opposition were very angry, for they said that Walpole had demanded far too small a sum. At length, the minister, seeing that the general feeling of the country was against him, was forced, much against his will, to declare war (1739). The war was disastrous. France soon threatened to join Spain against England, and sent an army to support a rising of the Jacobites in England. Gradually, Walpole's followers deserted him one by one; and at length, in 1742, he resigned office. He was made Lord Orford, but he was never again a minister of the king. For more than twenty years Walpole had been at the head of affairs, and, though he allowed many old evils to continue, yet he did his best to give peace and prosperity to England, and had established the House of Hanover firmly on the throne.

7. **The Wesleyans.**—It was about this time that we first hear of the *Wesleyans*—a religious sect which took its name from its good founder, John Wesley. Disquieted by the evil state into which religion had fallen in England, John Wesley, a young clergyman, joined a small body of friends at Oxford, among whom

were his brother Charles, and George Whitefield, who assembled for the purpose of prayer and reading the Bible. These men became known as the *Methodists*, from their orderly or methodical way of life. Wesley went for some years to America, and, on his return, he



JOHN WESLEY  
(B. 1703; D. 1791.)

found that the eloquent preaching of Whitefield had caused multitudes to join his society. It was at his instigation that Wesley adopted the custom of holding service in the open air, and soon afterwards he began to allow laymen to preach, whereby, though he did not intend it, he caused himself and his followers to separate from the Church of England. He afterwards be-

came opposed to Whitefield on religious points, but their personal friendship continued unchanged. The number of Wesley's followers constantly increased; at his death in 1791 he had more than a hundred thousand, most of whom were poor and ignorant. The yearly conference of ministers which he established has been continued to this day, and the work of Wesley, not only among his own particular sect, but among members of the Church of England as well, was very noble, and its effects are plainly visible among us now.

# CHAPTER VI.

PELHAM AND PITT.

1. **The Austrian Succession.**—Henry Pelham, the Duke of Newcastle's brother, who had been one of Walpole's most able followers, became leader of the new ministry. He came into power in troubled times; for the Emperor Charles VI. of Austria had died, leaving an only daughter, Maria Theresa. To the Empire it was held impossible that a woman should succeed, but Charles desired that his daughter should retain his own family dominions, and had, before his death, obtained the consent of the kings and princes of Europe to an Act called the *Pragmatic Sanction* (1731), which guaranteed these to Maria Theresa. But Charles Albert, the Elector of Bavaria, who at the death of Charles VI. was elected emperor, attempted to seize the Austrian territories, relying on the support of Louis XV. of France, and Frederick the Great of Prussia, who was casting longing eyes on the duchy of Silesia. Frederick, however, as soon as he had obtained that territory, deserted the league, while Maria Theresa, supported by her brave Hungarian subjects and by the promise of English help, continued to fight bravely against her enemies.

2. **Battle of Dettingen** (1743).—George II. felt that his own Hanoverian kingdom was threatened by the advance of the Prussians and French, whilst the English were determined to resist the designs of France, involving, as they did, the restoration of the Stuarts in England. So the English army, under Lord Stair, undertook to expel the French from Germany. Owing to the incompetence of Stair, they were caught in a trap by the French army, under the Duke of Noailles,

at *Dettingen*, on the river *Maine*. The English were only delivered by the courage and decision of King George, who had joined them there and cut a way through the opposing forces.



ENGLISH SOLDIERS (1743).

### 3. The Hostile Alliances.

—After some ineffectual negotiations, two great leagues or alliances were formed. England, Austria, and Holland pledged themselves, in the *Treaty of Worms* (1743), to uphold Maria Theresa and the *Balance of Power* among the European nations; while France, Prussia, and Bavaria joined in the *League of Frankfort* (1744) to pursue their own designs of aggrandisement. The war gradually grew into a struggle between France and England for supremacy not only in Europe, but in India and in America.

4. At first all went well with the allies of England. A great expedition under Marshal Saxe, the finest general of the day, to invade England and restore the Pretender, was dispersed by a storm; Frederick the Great

was compelled to withdraw from Austria, and on the death of Charles of Bavaria, in 1745, Francis, Maria Theresa's husband, was elected Emperor. The English ministers took foreign armies into their pay, and occu-

pied Flanders with a force of 50,000 men, under the king's second son, Prince William, Duke of Cumberland, and the Dutch general, the Prince of Waldeck. Their attack upon the French army, under Marshal Saxe, at *Fontenoy* (1745), was, however, repulsed, and the English retired towards Brussels.

### 5. The Jacobite Rebellion

(1745).—Besides being defeated in Flanders, the English had to contend against the last and most dangerous effort of the Jacobites. The Pretender's son Charles, a young man of great courage and generosity, arrived in the Hebrides in a small frigate, after a dangerous voyage, in which he had been nearly captured by an English ship. The gallant Highlanders gathered round him; he marched southward, and slipping past the royal troops under Sir Edward Cope, he gained Edinburgh in safety, where he proclaimed his father King. Cope, who had been thus outwitted, took ship and sailed along the coast to Dunbar, near which town he placed his troops in a strong position at *Prestonpans*. However, when Charles and his Highlanders rushed upon them, the cavalry fled



ENGLISH OFFICER (1743).

without striking a blow, and the infantry soon followed its example. Charles, at the head of about 6,000 men, crossed the frontier and took Carlisle.

6. The English Government were taken by surprise. The greater part of their army was in Flanders; even the king was in Germany, and it was with some



difficulty that troops were collected at Newcastle, and entrusted to General Wade. It was not long, however, before the Duke of Cumberland arrived in England at the head of the soldiers who had fought so well at Fontenoy, and marched to arrest the "Young Pretender," as Prince Charles was called. Meanwhile, though much disappointed at finding that few Englishmen would join him, Prince Charles had advanced to Derby. Nothing now lay between him and London.

7. At Derby, however, Charles was persuaded to retreat; for his Scotch officers feared to be surrounded by the English troops, and were disappointed because the Jacobites would not rise, nor the French send an army to help them. The army, therefore, returned in no cheerful spirit to Glasgow, and at length were overtaken by Cumberland's army at *Culloden*. A quarrel between the clans of Cameron and Macdonald broke out on the battle-field. The Macdonalds refused to fight, and the rout was universal. Several Highland nobles were executed for their share in the rebellion, and others were transported; while Prince Charles, after countless hazards and escapes, embarked in a French ship and arrived safely in France.

8. **Peace of Aix-la-Chapelle (1748).**—Meanwhile the French found that they were being slowly but surely worsted on all sides, especially on the sea, where the brave English admirals had completely destroyed their ships. They were therefore glad to offer terms of peace, which were accepted by George II., chiefly through the advice of Lord Chesterfield, who was now Secretary of State. The treaty is known as that of *Aix-la-Chapelle* (1748).

9. **Pelham's Administration (1743 — 1754).**—During the six years of peace which followed, Pelham devoted his attention to the good of the people. The National Debt had swelled to about £80,000,000; but

so rich was the country, and so strong the confidence in the Government, that Pelham was able to reduce the interest on it to three per cent. To put a stop to marriages between young and foolish couples without the consent of their parents, all were now compelled to be married in the parish church, after their banns had been called, or after a special licence had been obtained. The Calendar, which was eleven days behind the *Gregorian Calendar* which had been introduced by Pope Gregory XIII. upon the Continent (1582), was also reformed, and the first day of the year was made to be the 1st of January, instead of the 25th of March, as it had previously been. Upon the death of Henry Pelham in 1754, his brother, the Duke of Newcastle, became Prime Minister of England, but his undecided and foolish character made him quite unfit to act alone.

10. **The French in India.**—Though nominally at peace, the French and English were in constant hostilities both in India and in America. In India the English settlements under the sway of the East India Company had already begun to expand into an empire over the native princes. The French under Dupleix were determined to expel the English, and during the recent war had captured Madras, and for a moment had seemed all-powerful. But by the victory of *Arcot* (1752) Clive had arrested the schemes of France.

11. **The French in America.**—In America the French had powerful colonies in Canada, while the English held the sea-coast to their south, and were gradually expanding westwards towards the Mississippi. This the French were determined to prevent. They designed to occupy that river themselves, and to make it link their northern settlements with the Gulf of Mexico. Hostilities were constantly breaking out between the French and English colonists, and General

Braddock, who was sent from England to drive the French from Fort Duquesne, on the Ohio, was routed and slain (1755).

12. **Loss of Minorca** (1756).—While Newcastle still could not resolve to declare war, the French recaptured the island of Minorca, which had been conquered during the reign of Queen Anne. The indignation of the country was great, and Admiral Byng, the commander of the English fleet in the Mediterranean, was condemned to death for failing to relieve the island, and was shot in Portsmouth Harbour.

13. **William Pitt** (*b.* 1708; *d.* 1778).—Newcastle resigned, and William Pitt, who, on account of his talents and great honesty, was beloved by both rich and poor, became the head of the Government (1757). Pitt had originally been a member of the Patriot party. He had several times before this held office for short periods, although the king disliked him, and he was not on good terms with the great Whig nobles, who were very powerful. He was now compelled to secure their support by uniting with Newcastle and Fox.

14. **The Seven Years' War**.—Shortly after the formation of the ministry of Pitt and Newcastle, a great European war began, which is known as the *Seven Years' War*. Its origin was two-fold: in the first place, England and France had long been disputing for the possession of North America; secondly, the Emperors of Russia and Austria had for some time viewed with jealousy the increasing power of Frederick the Great of Prussia, and now invited France to join them. In face of this common danger, George and Frederick made a close alliance, and the English promised to assist the Prussians with money and men.

15. The first year of the war was full of disasters for the English arms in Europe and in America. In

India, however, Clive won the brilliant victory of *Plassey* over the allies of the French (1757); and before long the energy of Pitt taught the English how to repeat this victory in every quarter. The French were driven back in America and in Europe; their



FREDERICK THE GREAT (B. 1712; D. 1786).

fleets were annihilated; Hanover was relieved from danger by the victory of *Minden* (1759); and finally, General Wolfe, at the cost of his own life, wrested *Quebec* from the French and won the great dominion of Canada for England.

## CHAPTER VII.

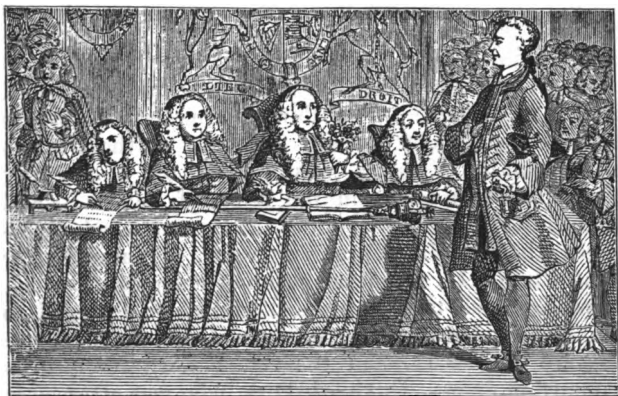
## PERSONAL GOVERNMENT.

1. **George III.** (1760—1820).—In the midst of these universal victories George II. died suddenly, and was succeeded by his grandson, George III., the son of that Frederick, Prince of Wales, who had quarrelled so bitterly with his father in the days of Sir Robert Walpole. His accession changed the whole policy of England at home and abroad, and rapidly turned her triumphs into disaster. George was twenty-three years old. He had lived chiefly with his mother, the Princess of Wales, who had given him a rather limited education, and had impressed him with the mistaken idea that it was highly necessary for him to assert his power as a king. Throughout his life George was an honest and well-intentioned man, who could not bear to be thwarted, and could seldom be convinced. His best qualities were those of private life—a sincere piety and a deep affection for his wife and children. He was jealous of the power of the Whig nobles, and was supported in his determination to supersede them by the nation's distrust of the corrupted Parliament and of the jobbery of its leaders. He chose as his Prime Minister Lord Bute, who had for several years been one of his greatest friends.

2. **Lord Bute.**—Lord Bute was not a good minister. The people of England hated him because he was a Scotchman, and because it was thought that he had too much influence over the Princess of Wales and the young king. Pitt and Newcastle were forced to resign (1761), our allies were abandoned, and a most inadequate peace was concluded with France which left Minorca in her hands. Bute then began to buy the

votes of the corrupt statesmen in the House of Commons, and to dismiss Pitt's friends from their offices. But he became so unpopular that his life was in danger; and, moved partly by fear and partly by a knowledge of his own incompetence, he retired from office.

**3. George Grenville.**—George Grenville, a harsh



JOHN WILKES BEFORE THE KING'S BENCH.

and imperious man, belonging to the most corrupt section of the Whigs, was chosen to succeed Bute, and his administration was not much better. He was soon disliked by the king, who constantly tried to hinder his plans; but his ministry, which the Duke of Bedford, a great Whig nobleman, joined, was at first very powerful.

4. Grenville's first act was to arrest and bring to trial a certain John Wilkes, the editor of a paper called the *North Briton*, in which certain articles, directed against the king and the ministry, had appeared. Wilkes was acquitted by the jury, much

to the joy of the nation, who regarded him as the victim of Grenville's resentful temper; but that minister was not to be balked, and soon afterwards Wilkes was expelled by the House of Commons, of which he was a member. The only result of this was that he was regarded as a martyr, and the streets resounded with the cry, "Wilkes and Liberty!"

5. **The American Colonies.**—The ministry soon became involved in difficulties with the English colonies in North America, which did not end until those great possessions, after a long war, had established their independence. The thirteen American provinces were settled chiefly during the rule of the Stuarts in England. Virginia was settled by a company of London merchants in the reign of James I., and many noble English families had established themselves there; the Carolinas were so called after King Charles II. Another group of colonies, of which New York was the centre, had originally belonged to the Dutch, but they were taken from them in the reign of Charles II., and their chief town received its name from James, Duke of York, who was afterwards King James II. Pennsylvania, with its great town Philadelphia, was colonised by the followers of the great Quaker, William Penn, towards the end of the reign of James II. Lastly, there were the New England provinces, with Boston as their capital, which had originally been settled by a body of religious dissenters, known as the *Pilgrim Fathers*, who had fled thither from the persecutions which were inflicted upon them in the reigns of Elizabeth and James I. Such were the chief colonies in America; they were variously governed, and the question was whether the enactments of the English Parliament could override the local representative assemblies.

6. **The Stamp Act.**—For several years the Ameri-

can colonies had found reason to complain against the English Government, chiefly because of its interference with their manufactures and trade, which were subjected to various restrictions for the benefit of England. It was now necessary to raise taxes to defray the expenses of the late war, and Grenville had induced the English Parliament to pass the *Stamp Act* (which imposed certain taxes on the colonists) in opposition to the protests of the Colonial Assemblies (1764). Riots, therefore, broke out in Boston, and the obnoxious measure had to be withdrawn, chiefly because of a splendid speech against it by Pitt.

7. **Return of Pitt (1766).**—Ministry succeeded ministry, but it was found impossible to conduct the Government prosperously without Pitt. At last George was forced again to place the Government in his hands (1766). His failing health induced him to leave the House of Commons and take his seat in the Upper House as Lord Chatham. It was his purpose to form a strong alliance with Prussia against France, to reform Parliament, and to provide for the better government of the great Dependencies—Ireland, India, and America. But illness interrupted all his plans. He was forced to retire (1768), and the Government was conducted irresolutely and foolishly by the Duke of Grafton.

8. **The Grafton Ministry.**—Grafton was fiercely assailed by an unknown writer, who assumed the name of Junius, in a series of letters which expressed, with unrivalled power, the widespread feeling of scorn and hatred for the Government. He suffered also in reputation from a contest with John Wilkes, who, though an outlaw, was elected a member for Middlesex (1768). Parliament refused to admit Wilkes, but he was thrice returned, until at length he was allowed to take his seat. But Grafton's greatest mistake was in his dealings with America, where fresh taxes were imposed.



Shortly afterwards the ministry resigned, amidst universal condemnation (1770).

9. **Lord North's Ministry** (1770—1782).—The Whigs being now in general discredit, George made his friend, Lord North, Prime Minister. North was a very clear-sighted man, but completely under the influence of the king, so that he was continually being driven to act against his own inclinations. George was determined to suppress all resistance in America, where the tax on tea was still enforced, though American women gave up drinking tea rather than pay it.

10. **His Mistakes.**—North's ministry, being favoured by the king, gradually gained numerous adherents, although their policy was unwise. The Tories, who for long had had but little voice in politics, rallied round them. They endeavoured to prevent the publication of the debates in Parliament, which aroused much hostility in the country and in London. They determined also to put down with a high hand all resistance in America. They rejected with scorn a petition from the province of Massachusetts, that its governor Hutchinson should be removed; and then, after some Boston townsmen, disguised as Indian savages, had shown their hatred of British impositions by throwing a quantity of tea, which had been sent from England, into the sea, they proceeded to punish Boston by declaring that all trade should be removed to the neighbouring town of Salem, and Boston Harbour be closed. Finally, the charter of Massachusetts, which granted to that colony greater liberties than most of its neighbours enjoyed, was taken away, and arbitrary powers given to its governor. Lord North said that if these measures were maintained, "peace and quietude would soon be restored," but to most men it appeared that war was inevitable.

## CHAPTER VIII.

## THE WAR OF AMERICAN INDEPENDENCE.

1. **The American Congress (1774).**—The Americans were very prompt in showing their resentment to this harsh treatment. A Congress, or Assembly, was summoned at Philadelphia, to which representatives were sent from all the provinces except Georgia. They issued a *Declaration of Rights*, in imitation of the English Parliament after the flight of James II., in which they asserted their rights as Englishmen, and protested against the injustice of the laws the English Parliament had passed against them. They forbade the importation of all goods whatever from England till the late Acts of Parliament were repealed, and raised an army.



FLAG OF THE COLONISTS.

2. **War Begins (1775).**—Chatham in vain condemned the folly of the Government. The nation returned a Parliament to support its policy, and Chatham's proposals to repeal the hateful statutes, and withdraw the English troops which had been sent to America, were rejected by a large majority. The first battle was fought at *Lexington*, and the English, under General Gage, were defeated.

3. **George Washington.**—A second Congress was now summoned. The Americans assumed the name of the *United Colonies*, and then chose as their

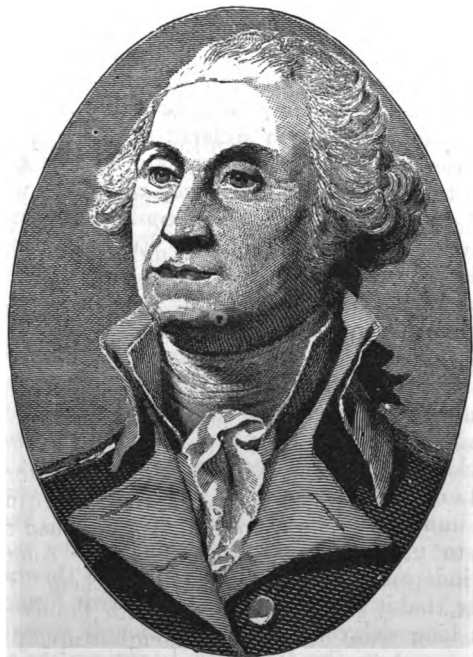
Commander-in-chief Colonel George Washington. Washington was now about forty-three years old; he possessed a large estate in Virginia, and when only nineteen had gained a great reputation as a soldier by his services against the French in America. He was a simple, silent man, whom all respected for his perfect honesty and unquenchable courage.

4. **Bunker's Hill** (1775).—Before Washington could take command of the troops, the English were again defeated in their attack upon the colonial troops at Bunker's Hill. Washington spent the next months in drilling and arming his newly-raised levies, and General Gage, who thought perhaps that it was even yet possible to effect a reconciliation, looked idly on, while the colonists, who had at first no powder at all, were, by Washington's patience and energy, transformed into a capable army.

5. **The Declaration of Independence** (1776).—Meanwhile a petition for peace from the American Congress, known as the *Olive Branch Petition*, was rejected by the English Parliament. The Americans, aided by the neglect of the English Government, made a bold though unsuccessful attempt to invade Canada, and captured also the important city of Boston. The Congress, relying no doubt on the help which had been promised them by the Governments of France and Spain, then proceeded to publish a Declaration of Independence. They asserted that all men are born free and equal, and that the object of the king having been to establish "an absolute tyranny" over these States, the Congress declared that the United Colonies "are, and ought to be, free and independent."

6. **Washington's Disasters**.—At first, however, the colonists met with serious disasters. English and German troops had by this time been poured into the country, under Generals Howe, Clinton, and Burgoyne.

The Americans were surrounded on Long Island and utterly defeated, and soon afterwards Washington, finding that he could hold out no longer in New York, retreated in haste from the city. Some few



GEORGE WASHINGTON (B. 1732; D. 1799).

months afterwards General Howe took the important town of Philadelphia, and defeated the Americans in a skirmish near the city. The American army was in disorder. The Congress impeded the campaign by its jealousy of the military authorities. The various

colonies shrank from the effects and sacrifices which were necessary, and nothing but Washington's skill, self-sacrifice, and courage averted the ruin of their cause.

**7. The Tide Turns (1777).**—The triumphant English were suddenly startled by the news of a great disaster. About June, General Burgoyne had started with an army from Canada and advanced towards New York, whence General Clinton was to advance with another army and meet him. Burgoyne soon became involved in difficulties. The people of the district cut off his provisions; he was defeated, and had to fall back on *Saratoga*, where he was surrounded by the Americans, and could neither advance nor retreat. The whole of the English army were compelled to surrender.

**8. America and France.**—More evil tidings arrived in England soon afterwards. The young King of France, Louis XVI., had for some time been wishing to pick a quarrel with England, and now, hearing of the English disasters, he concluded a treaty with the United Colonies, in which their independence was acknowledged. Lord Chatham, to whom, but for the king, Lord North wished to resign the Government, with Edmund Burke and Charles James Fox, had never ceased to urge that every demand of the colonists, except independence, should be yielded to them. Now, however, that it was evident that war with France could not be long delayed, Chatham, though scarcely able to walk, went to the House of Lords, and in a speech which proved by its feebleness that his powers were failing, urged the nation not to yield to its ancient enemy. At the close he fell back in a fit. A few days afterwards he died, and great was the sorrow in England when it was known that the man to whose unselfish energy the glorious victories of the Seven Years' War were due, was no more.

**9. Four Years of Disaster (1778—1782).**—First Spain, and then Holland, followed France in the declaration of war against England. Ireland also, denuded of troops, was in a dangerous agitation, and began to claim on its own account the same rights of self-government and free trade which the Americans were fighting for. In England, too, the nation was divided. The leaders of the Opposition, finding their protests idle, scarcely ever appeared in Parliament. There was a strong party which demanded the repeal of the tyrannical laws against the Catholics, while, on the other hand, the common people, under the leadership of a crack-brained enthusiast, Lord George Gordon, who raised the cry of "No Popery," broke out in dangerous riots, threatened Parliament, opened the gaols, and pillaged London unchecked (1780). In every direction the Government of George III. and North broke down, while the enemies of England saw that the time had come to attack her, and avenge the defeats inflicted on them by Chatham.

**10. Progress of the War (1778).**—Strengthened by their alliance with France, the Americans now rejected all offers of reconciliation. The French gave them but little help, however, and they were themselves not very successful. Clinton, who was now in command of the English forces, sailed from New York, took Charleston, the capital of South Carolina, and left Lord Cornwallis there to suppress all attempts at resistance. General Gates, an incompetent man, who thought himself superior to Washington, was presently sent with a large army against Cornwallis, but was twice defeated with terrible loss. Soon after this Admiral Rodney, who had already crushed the Spanish fleet at Cape St. Vincent, captured the island of St. Eustace, in the West Indies, filled with rich merchandise; and these successes of the

English made the French minister, Necker, anxious for peace. Greene, however, freed the Carolinas and Georgia from the English.

**11. The Surrender of Cornwallis (1781).**—In the following year, however, an unexampled disaster settled the fate of the English rule in America. Cornwallis had been joined in Virginia by some fresh English troops, and his army was now about 7,000 strong. But his position was very dangerous; the American armies began to collect round him, and so he went to Yorktown, a port at the mouth of York river, and there awaited the arrival of help from General Clinton, who was with a large army at New York. But the English fleets could no longer command the sea against the hostile fleets of the French and Dutch, and the *Armed Neutrality* of the Northern Powers, who insisted on their right to supply our enemies with munitions of war. The French fleet, under Admiral De Grasse, was more powerful than the English, and it was impossible to send troops to relieve Cornwallis by sea. Therefore, when Washington arrived to take command of the American troops, Cornwallis, though he did not know it, was in a hopeless plight. Soon the fire of the besiegers became terrible; Cornwallis attempted to cut a way through the enemy, then to cross the river in boats; but finally, on October the 19th, 1781, he was compelled to surrender with all his men. This crushing disaster, combined with the capture of many islands in the West Indies, as well as the important island of Minorca, in the Mediterranean, made the English long for peace.

**12. Peace with America (1782).**—Amidst these disasters the Opposition, led by Burke and Charles Fox, two of the greatest orators of the day, redoubled their efforts to overthrow the ministry, and at length Lord North, in spite of the entreaties of the king,

resigned office. The new ministry, at the head of which was Lord Rockingham, did not last long, for Rockingham died within the year, and Lord Shelburne, a friend of Chatham's, became Prime Minister. Among those who took office at this time was Chatham's



EDMUND BURKE (B. 1730; D. 1797).

son William, then aged twenty-three. Shelburne at once began to treat for peace with the Americans, who, on their side, having spent all their money, and not being able to raise any more soldiers, gladly received the message. Unfortunately, France and Spain, who had joined America from a desire to avenge themselves on England, were disposed to continue the war. A



large French fleet, under Admiral De Grasse, was sent to seize the island of Jamaica, but Admiral Rodney, with inferior ships, gained a glorious victory and saved the island. Nor was an attempt to take Gibraltar successful, although the fortress had now been besieged for three years, and the French had attacked it with terrible determination. These failures made the French king willing to accept the English offers of peace; he gave up most of his conquests in the West Indies. Spain got for her share the island of Minorca. The independence of America had already been acknowledged. Soon afterwards the English troops left New York, and General Washington retired into private life, from which he afterwards came forth to be twice chosen President of the United States. He was, as was said at the time of his death, "First in war, first in peace, and first in the hearts of his countrymen."

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## CHAPTER IX.

### THE THREE STATESMEN.

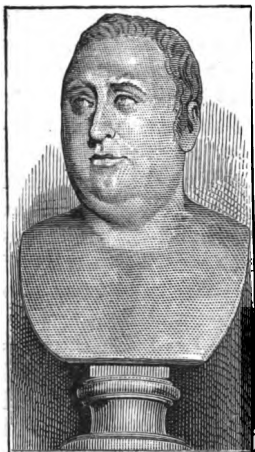
1. **Burke, Fox, and Pitt.**—The break-up of George III.'s Government under North brought to the front three great statesmen—Edmund Burke (b. 1730, d. 1797), Charles James Fox (b. 1749, d. 1806), and William Pitt (b. 1759, d. 1806), who continued to be the leading figures in English history till the opening of the nineteenth century. The youthful Pitt, who was the second son of Lord Chatham and a first-rate speaker, had but just entered Parliament (1781). Burke and Fox had been in Parliament through the whole of the American troubles, and had opposed at every step the policy of Lord North, whilst William Pitt had been educated in the same principles by his

father. The great questions of the day were the government of Ireland, the government of the new empire of India, the reform of Parliament, the limitation of the Royal Power, the suppression of corruption, and the emancipation of the Catholics. On these questions, however, now that their enemy was overthrown, these three statesmen took very different lines, so that they became in turn leaders of opposition. Pitt had refused to take office under Rockingham, but was Chancellor of the Exchequer under Shelburne. Burke and Fox had held office under Rockingham, but they abandoned Shelburne and devoted themselves to overthrow him. Burke was the most high-minded and thoughtful of English politicians. He was the champion of justice and good government, but he shrank from political changes such as Pitt contemplated. Fox was very liberal in his political theories, but was a man of low morals, and unprincipled as a partisan; there also arose a personal hostility between him and Pitt.

2. **Lord Shelburne Resigns.**—Lord Shelburne's Whig ministry only lasted eight months. It had several difficulties to contend with. The peace yielded too much to be popular. The politicians were irritated by the proposals of the ministers for the *Reform of Parliament* and the limitation of jobbery. The Irish had succeeded, chiefly through the eloquence of one of their greatest political leaders, Henry Grattan, and through the determined attitude of 40,000 volunteers who had enlisted for the defence of the country during the American war, in obtaining the removal of many restrictions on their commerce, and in making the Irish Parliament independent (1782). It could, however, in no sense be said to represent the Irish nation, as Roman Catholics were rigidly excluded; while the separate action of the Irish Parliament proved a great impediment to the ministry. Finally, the Tories under Lord

North, and the discontented Whigs under Fox, combined together and turned out the ministry.

3. **The Portland Ministry (1783).**—The friends of Fox and North now formed a Coalition Ministry, as it is called—that is, a ministry in which there were both Whigs and Tories. At its head was placed the



CHARLES JAMES FOX.

Duke of Portland, who was an insignificant man. Pitt alone opposed the Coalition, which was so strong that it seemed as if it would have a long enjoyment of power. It did not, however, last out the year; for the king, who hated the Whigs, persuaded his personal friends in the House of Lords to reject a Bill which had been prepared by Fox for the better government of India, and followed this up by dismissing the ministers.

4. **Ministry of Pitt (1783—1801).**—The king chose Pitt as Portland's successor, though he was only twenty-four. In the House of Commons Pitt was in a hopeless minority. Fox, who was furious at being turned out of office, covered him with abuse; but his violent conduct disgusted many of his former followers. Since the final extinction of the Stuart cause the Tory party had grown more influential; and, Parliament being dissolved, a large Tory majority was returned. The Tories did not like Pitt's measures always, but they followed him as the confidential minister of the king, and as the opponent of their old enemies the Whig nobility.

5. The new minister soon proved his ability. His *India Bill* secured the home Government a proper voice

in the East India Company's administration of India. He paid off some of the national debt, concluded a commercial treaty with France, and suppressed smuggling, which was largely carried on in tea and other articles, by taking off the heavy duties which had been placed on them. He also attempted to pass a



OLD PARLIAMENT HOUSE, DUBLIN.

Bill for reforming the English Parliament—a highly necessary step, for many little villages returned members in those days, while large towns were only represented through the county members. But his Bill was rejected. Parliamentary reform was deferred for a later generation.

6. **The Irish Parliament.**—As had been expected, the Irish Parliament was very unsatisfactory. It was thoroughly corrupt; nearly all its members were returned by great noblemen, who could persuade their tenants to vote as they pleased. Flood, the new leader of

the popular party in Ireland, introduced a measure of reform which was rejected, and the mob of Dublin, furious at the disappointment of their hopes, rose in rebellion and put several unoffending people to death. Nor was Pitt's attempt to remove the duties which had been imposed on Irish goods more successful than Flood's attempt at reform, for the Irish Parliament were persuaded by Pitt's Whig enemies in England to reject his Bill (1784). Pitt, seeing how corrupt the Irish Parliament was, determined to unite the Parliaments of England and Ireland, as those of England and Scotland had been united in the reign of Queen Anne.

**7. Principle in Politics.**—The administration of Pitt was marked by a great growth of high principle in politics. Public opinion made itself felt more and more, and men like Burke and Pitt himself insisted that politics was not merely a contest for power and wealth, but for the establishment of what is right and the abolition of what is wrong. English statesmen awoke to their duty to Ireland and other English dependencies, and strove to secure to them justice and happiness. Warren Hastings, who was supposed to have been guilty of many cruel deeds as Governor-General of India, was brought to trial. The movement against the slave-trade was commenced, and a committee was appointed by Parliament to investigate it. John Howard, too, was agitating for the humane treatment of the prisoners in English gaols.

**8. The Regency Bill (1788).**—In 1788 the king lost his reason. It was necessary, therefore, to appoint a Regent to carry on the government of the country in his place. It was impossible to choose any one except the Prince of Wales. Now George, Prince of Wales, was a very unprincipled man. He had quarrelled with his father, and was deeply in debt, and he had married a Roman Catholic lady named Mrs.

Fitz-Herbert, although he knew that he was forbidden to do so by the law of England. He was at this time connected with the members of the Opposition, especially with Charles Fox, who shared his taste for gambling and dissipation. Pitt, seeing that the Prince of Wales was his enemy, introduced several clauses in the Regency Bill by which the prince was deprived of the care of the king, nor was he allowed to make any new peers or any new appointments. Shortly afterwards, however, King George recovered his reason, and so the Bill never became law. He now placed more confidence in Pitt than ever, and the Prime Minister, supported by the numerous body of Tories who had gradually gathered round him, was able to defy the attacks of the Whigs under Fox and Edmund Burke.

**9. Pitt's Management of Foreign Affairs.**—Thus secure at home, Pitt proceeded to turn his attention to affairs abroad. He made an alliance with Holland, and these two nations, both occupied very largely in trade, now became firm friends. Pitt also made an alliance between England and Prussia against Russia, but he could not check that powerful nation; for in spite of his protests on behalf of England, the armies of Czarina Catharine poured into Turkey, and took the fortress of Ismail. England was now again respected abroad, and since trade and manufactures, especially in cotton and iron goods, were increasing rapidly, the country prospered in every way, and became once more as powerful as it had been at the beginning of the reign.

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## CHAPTER X.

### THE FRENCH REVOLUTION.

**1. The "Rights of Man."**—The American Revolution was partly the result of a widespread movement

towards political self-government, equality, and liberty—the *Rights of Man*, as they were called—which had, since the English Revolution, spread over Western Christendom. Its success had stimulated Ireland to similar demands; and the alliance of France with the Americans in the struggle had aroused the same excitement there also. But the Revolution in France became



PARISIANS DURING THE REIGN OF LOUIS XVI.

a fierce and destructive rebellion against all law and order. It threw the whole of Europe into a confusion from which it has but slowly recovered.

**2. The French Revolution (1789).**—For many years the state of the French people had been one of great misery. Their Government was very corrupt, and their kings had brought the country to a bankrupt condition by reckless extravagance and a constant succession of wars. The French sovereigns at this time were absolute; the lower classes were not able to make known their wrongs. They were half-starved, and they were ground down by the exactions

of the royal tax-gatherers. The nobles paid no taxes, and instead of staying at home to take care of their estates, they lived at the court, and left the unfortunate peasantry to shift for themselves. The clergy were equally selfish, and took no pains to check the sceptical doctrines that were openly proclaimed by the French philosophers.

**3. Republic Established (1792).—**Louis XVI., being in great want of money, summoned the Estates General, or Representative Assembly of the nation, in hopes that it might put an end to the disorders of the time. But the Assembly wanted more than he would grant; and at length the people of Paris, driven wild by excitement, rose up, and after destroying the Bastille, the State Prison, and committing many deeds of murder and pillage, brought the king as a prisoner to Paris. Thence he attempted to fly to Germany, but was captured before he could reach the frontier. He was soon afterwards deposed, and in 1792 France became a Republic.

**4. The Effect of the Revolution in England.—**At first men in England rejoiced to see that the French people had freed themselves from tyranny. The movement for Reform was stimulated. Societies were formed on all sides pledged to the reform of Parliament, and the extension of the right of voting at Parliamentary elections to the classes which did not yet enjoy it. As the violence of the French increased, however, the more thoughtful statesmen drew back. Burke's "Reflections on the French Revolution" produced great effect in England. He, with many of the leading Whigs, separated from Fox, who continued to uphold the revolutionary cause, and joined the party of Pitt, who viewed with great alarm the excitement of the English people. The discontent of the working classes threatened to become



dangerous. Messages of congratulation were sent to France, and in several of the large towns there were riots which had to be suppressed by the military.

**5. Execution of Louis.**—The people of Paris became uncontrollable. They had compelled the moderate men who governed France to declare war against Austria, and when Austria was joined by Prussia, and the French troops were defeated on all sides, the moderate men were driven from power, and the *Jacobins*, a very dangerous and reckless party, took their place. They drove the German armies out of France, and overran Belgium and Savoy, calling to the people of every nation to join them in the Revolution. Bloodthirsty executions of the "aristocrats," as the French called their nobles, followed; and finally, in 1793, the unfortunate King Louis XVI. was condemned to death and guillotined as a traitor to his country. All Europe received the news with horror and disgust. Pitt, like the other rulers of Europe, believed that all civilisation and order were in danger, and when the French at last declared war against the English Government, took up the challenge with alacrity, and became the



THE GUILLOTINE.

centre of a European coalition against France.

**6. The French War—First Period (1793—1802).**—The soldiers of the French Republic were opposed by the armies of England, Holland, Spain, Austria, and Prussia, as well as by the royalists who had risen in the south of France; but such was the

power of their patriotic courage that, though the troops were in want of the necessities of life, the allies were everywhere driven back. Frederick, Duke of York, King George's second son, attempted to take the strong town of Dunkirk, but was driven away with great loss, and Lord Hood with the English fleet failed to deliver the royalist town of Toulon from the republican armies which surrounded it.

7. It was evident that the struggle was to be a severe one. Pitt kept up the courage of the allies by sending them large sums of money, and the war went on. The French, though defeated at first, were soon completely successful, the English were driven into Holland, and the Duke of York was recalled to England in disgrace. His successor, General Walmoden, a Hanoverian, was not more successful; the Prince of Orange had to fly to England, and Holland became a Republic. Soon afterwards a mismanaged expedition of French royalists landed on the peninsula of Quiberon in Brittany, where they were surrounded by the troops of Hoche, the republican general, and shot down helplessly, many of the prisoners also being afterwards put to death. The half-hearted allies of England, Prussia and Spain, were induced by these and other disasters to make peace with France, and Pitt had only Austria, which smarted under the loss of the Belgian provinces, to whom to turn for help. His chief reliance was in the English fleet, which was far superior to that of the French, who were defeated with terrible loss by Admiral Howe.

8. **The Severity of Pitt.**—Nevertheless, the Prime Minister, in spite of opposition of the nation to the war, both because of its unfortunate results and the heavy taxation which it necessitated, had no thought of peace. He made a new treason law by which all men who had any dealings with the French were liable to be

punished. Men who were detected in the publication of writings which the Government thought seditious were treated with great harshness : some of them were transported for long periods. These severities were



WILLIAM PITT (B. 1759 ; D. 1806).

deemed unnecessary, and produced much indignation. The juries acquitted several of the leading agitators for reform, among whom was Horne Tooke, a violent politician who had been a friend of Wilkes. The people of the great towns were starving and desperate ;

they assaulted the king as he drove through the streets of London, crying aloud, "Give us bread." Pitt, however, would only pass fresh laws against rioting and sedition.

9. **The Directory** (1795—1799).—A settled government was at length established in France. The Jacobins, a party composed of some patriotic men, but mostly of headstrong and rash mob-orators, had been driven by the dangers from without, and the fear of a royalist revolution, to acts of great cruelty. A *Reign of Terror*, as men called it, prevailed; nobles were guillotined by hundreds; and then the Jacobins began to quarrel among themselves. One of them, named Robespierre, got the upper hand, and put many of his former friends to death. At length the French nation began to grow tired of the madness of Paris; Robespierre was condemned to death, and a moderate government called the *Directory* established. The wild Parisians rose thrice in vain rebellion: the last of these tumults was drowned in blood by Napoleon Bonaparte, a young officer from Corsica, who had greatly distinguished himself in the siege of Toulon.

10. **Proposals for Peace** (1796).—Pitt, deserted by every ally except Austria, and finding the nation restless under the great burden of taxation, came to the conclusion that the earlier dangers from France were removed by the establishment of the Directory, and proposed peace. But he would not abandon to France the Belgian provinces of Austria. The Directory rejected his terms, and the war continued. The French armies triumphed on every side; but the chief honours were gained by Napoleon in Italy, where he defeated the Austrians in battle after battle, and compelled them to accept the *Peace of Campo Formio* (1797). Henceforward England had to fight for her own existence.

**11. Invasion of England.**—The French Government were now less inclined than ever to accept the offers of Pitt, and they planned two expeditions against England, one to land in Ireland, and the other at Bristol. These failed. Nevertheless, England was in a desperate plight. Money was very scarce, and there was such a run on the Bank of England, caused by people withdrawing their money, that it was unable to pay amounts of more than twenty shillings in cash. The French Government, undiscouraged, planned a fresh invasion. It was decided that the fleets of France and Spain and Holland—for these latter countries were now in close alliance with the Republic—should unite and attack England, and clear the way for the French armies. The Spaniards, however, were defeated off *Cape St. Vincent* by Admiral Jervis and Nelson, and the Dutch at the battle of *Camperdown*. These victories saved the country. Bonaparte, however, was determined to succeed, and once again gathered his forces for the conquest of England.

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## CHAPTER XI.

### THE UNION WITH IRELAND.

**1. Discontent of the Irish.**—Pitt's real danger was from Ireland. The establishment of an independent Irish Parliament had ended in total failure, partly because of its corruption and partly because it did not represent the Roman Catholics, who were still oppressed by unjust laws. The landlords seldom visited their estates, and tax-gatherers wrung money by cruel means from the miserable peasants. At last a civil war broke out among the Catholics and Protestants in the north of Ireland.

**2. The United Irishmen.**—The American and French Revolutions had roused the Irish to attack the bad laws they lived under. Grattan, himself a Protestant, demanded equal rights for the Catholics. Societies were formed for the defence of the cause of liberty, and chief among them was the Society of Constitutional Irishmen, founded by a wild young barrister named Wolfe Tone, which included both Protestants from the north of Ireland and Catholics from the south.

**3. Pitt and the Irish Catholics.**—Pitt was ready to offer the desired reforms, but the Irish Parliament refused to pass laws in favour of their Catholic countrymen. At length with extreme difficulty two measures of relief were passed: one of which allowed the Catholics to marry Protestants and to educate their children as they pleased, and the other gave them a vote at Parliamentary elections, though permitting them only to vote for Protestants. These small concessions disappointed the Catholic leaders, and soon afterwards they joined the United Irishmen.

**4. The Irish Rebellion (1795).**—Wolfe Tone and his associates, encouraged by the difficulties which were surrounding England on all sides, determined to rebel against England, in conjunction with an expedition from France. Regiments, however, were raised among the Irish Protestants. They disarmed the conspirators in the north; the ringleaders of the rebellion at Belfast were secretly arrested, while the invasion of General Hoche was scattered off the coast of Ireland by a storm (1796). In the following year, however, the Irish rose all over the country. But the Government had been forewarned. Lord Edward Fitzgerald, one of the leaders of the rebellion, was arrested, receiving a mortal wound in the struggle. An attack on Dublin failed; and the rebels in the south, where the insurrection had been strongest, were de-

feated on Vinegar Hill. Much needless cruelty was employed to stamp out the rebellion. Soon afterwards a small force of French soldiers, under General Humbert, landed in the south. They were utterly defeated, and Wolfe Tone, who was with them, was taken prisoner. He was condemned to be hanged, but the desperate man anticipated justice by suicide.

5. **The Union** (1800).—Amidst these disorders Pitt determined to abolish the Irish Parliament, and to unite the Governments of the two countries. The silent consent of the majority in the Dublin Parliament was secured by bribery, and the Bill for the Union became law. Its principal provisions were—that one hundred Irish members should sit in the House of Commons, while twenty-eight lords and four bishops were to be elected to sit in the Upper House. No duties were to be imposed on Irish merchandise which were not imposed on English goods as well.

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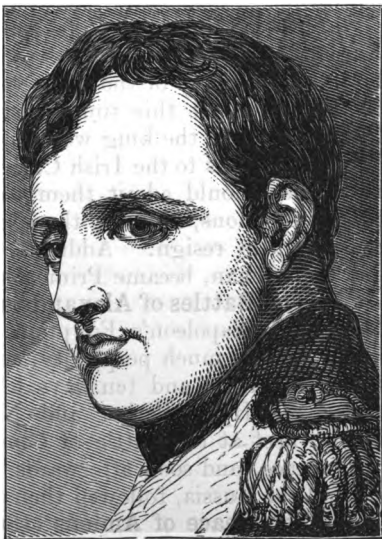
## CHAPTER XII.

### PITT AND NAPOLEON.

1. **The Second Coalition** (1798).—Meanwhile Napoleon, at the head of the French army, was turning his whole efforts to the annihilation of England. Pitt, however, had formed his *Second Coalition* against France, which, now that Napoleon commanded its armies, was more to be dreaded than ever. The Emperor of Austria, the Czar of Russia, and the Sultan of Turkey all joined this Coalition; the Austrians drove the French from Italy, and the Duke of York, aided by the Russians, captured the whole of the Dutch fleet.

2. **Napoleon in Egypt**.—These successes might not have been gained, had not Napoleon, for a time

deferring the invasion of England, betaken himself to Egypt, which country he proposed to sieze, and from thence undertake the conquest of India. He beat off the Egyptian warriors in a battle fought beneath the Pyramids; but Admiral Nelson defeated the French fleet in the *Battle of the Nile*. Napoleon retreated into Syria, where he attacked the fortress of Acre, but it was so gallantly defended by some English sailors under Sir Sidney Smith, that he was obliged to give up the attempt. He returned to Egypt, and thence, abandoning his army, sailed for France, where he found the Government in a state of great disorder.



NAPOLEON BONAPARTE (B. 1768 ; D. 1821).

**3. England Deserted by the Allies.**—Napoleon saw that he could now become the ruler of France. He turned out the Government of the Directory with a regiment of soldiers, much as Cromwell had turned out the English Parliament, and caused himself to be elected head of the Government under the title of *First Consul*. Forthwith he betook himself to Italy, where he won a succession of great victories against the Austrians, who were driven from the country a second time,



and compelled to make peace, giving up to France their possessions west of the Rhine. Soon afterwards the Czar Paul, who was thought to be mad, quarrelled with England, and Pitt saw with sorrow that his second great alliance against Napoleon had fallen to pieces.

4. **Pitt Resigns (1801).**—There was great misery in England at this time; corn was very dear, and bread-riots broke out in many of the large towns. Added to this, the nation was at this time deprived of the services of Pitt, who, since the king would not allow him to carry out his promises to the Irish Catholics by introducing a Bill which should admit them to Parliament and the chief professions, such as the army and the law, was compelled to resign. Addington, a somewhat weak and stupid man, became Prime Minister.

5. **The Battles of Alexandria and Copenhagen.**—Meanwhile Napoleon's Egyptian army, deprived of its leader, was in much perplexity, and finally surrendered to the English; and ten days later the English fleet, under Sir Hyde Parker and Nelson, destroyed the Danish fleet at the battle of *Copenhagen*. The Danes made peace, and soon afterwards the new Czar, Alexander I. of Russia, followed their example.

6. **The Peace of Amiens (1802).**—These successes made Bonaparte think that it might be well to make peace with England for a time. But even while the terms were being arranged he was extending his conquests on every side—in Holland, Switzerland, and Italy. But England was weary of war. Addington's ministry blindly trusted to the promises of Napoleon, and the hollow *Peace of Amiens* was concluded.

7. **French War—Second Period (1803—1815).**—It was soon clear that Napoleon had no intention of maintaining peace. He treated Addington with contempt, he requested him to suppress the English news-

papers in which his own duplicity was exposed, and demanded that Frenchmen who had fled for refuge to England should be expelled from thence. He also excluded all English merchandise from the countries he had conquered. Meanwhile he sent spies to England and Ireland to examine into the state of the country and to stir up discontent. Addington, seeing that Napoleon was only pressing forward his preparations, was at length driven, sorely against his will, to declare war anew. Napoleon promptly seized all the English in France, and thrust them into prison; and soon afterwards the outbreak of a riot in Dublin, known as Emmett's rebellion (from the name of its leader, a friend of Wolfe Tone and an ally of Napoleon's), warned the nation that dangers threatened them on every side.

8. **Pitt's Second Ministry** (1804—1806).—In this crisis Pitt, who had given his support to Addington, offered again to take office. Addington resigned, and Pitt attempted to form a ministry composed of both Tories and Whigs, including his old enemy, Charles Fox. But the king, hating Fox both for his extreme views on many political questions and for his friendship with the Prince of Wales, would not consent to his taking office. The best of Pitt's former Whig supporters would not serve him without Fox, and Pitt was therefore compelled to form a ministry composed entirely of Tories.

9. **Preparations against Invasion.**—Napoleon was again preparing to invade England at the head of a huge army, and Pitt strained every nerve to resist him. The army was increased; volunteers were enrolled; the coast was covered with *Martello Towers*; one hundred and sixty vessels were added to the fleet, which watched the huge fleet of flat-bottomed boats collected by Napoleon, and defeated all his attempts to collect the French navy in the Channel. The sovereigns of

Europe were so overawed by the great power of Napoleon that they did not dare to join England, while Spain openly united its navy to that of France.

10. **The Indian Empire.**—Whilst the English were engaged in this desperate conflict with Napoleon, both by land and sea, they had also to contend with the fierce Mahrattas, who at one time threatened to drive them out of their great dominions in India. Since the power of the French in India had been overthrown by Clive (1761), the English dominion there had become an Empire. The English were not the first of European nations to settle in India. The Portuguese and Dutch were both there before us. In the year 1600 the English merchants who traded with the Hindoo princes had formed themselves into a company which was called the *East India Company*. They gradually purchased lands from the native princes, and upon them they founded the great towns of Madras in the south-east, Bombay in the north-west, and Calcutta in the north-east. They were governed in the name of the Company by presidents and councils, whence they received the title of Presidencies. It had seemed at one time not improbable that the Company would be driven out of India by the French, who had begun in the eighteenth century to purchase land and build towns in imitation of the English; but the energy and courage of Clive led not only to the ruin of the French, but also to the subjugation of many of the native kingdoms.

11. The East India Company, however, proved incapable to rule. Clive was guilty of many acts of tyranny, and Warren Hastings, who was sent out as Governor-General (1773), was charged with such cruelty and extortion that the Opposition, headed by Burke, impeached him in Parliament. He was acquitted; but the elder Pitt carried an *India Bill*, which took from the Company their supreme political power, and en-

trusted it to a *Board of Control* appointed by the Government (1784).

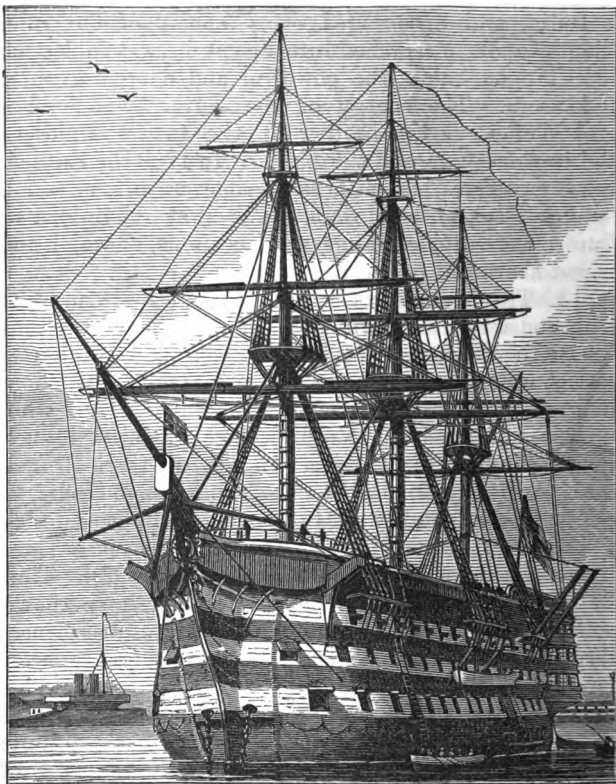
12. The French never forgot their ancient position in India, and encouraged every enemy of our rule. When Napoleon marched into Egypt he was in league with Tippoo Sahib, the powerful and dangerous ruler of Mysore. The energy of the Governor-General—Lord Wellesley, the brother of the future Duke of Wellington—removed the danger. In 1799 the English took Tippoo's capital after a terrible assault, in which the cruel tyrant was slain. The vast dominions of Mysore were divided into several portions, of which the largest share fell to the English.

13. **The Mahrattas.**—Hardly was the Mysore war at an end when England was engaged in a fresh conflict with the great Mahratta race. The Mahratta district was divided among five great chiefs, of whom the greatest was Sindia, who ruled at Delhi, and who, because he hated the English, had procured French officers to drill his troops. To oppose these princes Lord Wellesley forced the other princes of India to join with England, and to receive a large number of European officers into their army. After a fierce struggle he overthrew Sindia at *Assaye* (1803). Thus the English acquired the whole of the territory known as the Deccan, and before long all the Mahratta princes were subdued, and Pitt's anxieties in that quarter were removed.

14. **Third Coalition** (1805).—Napoleon's reckless aggression at last compelled Russia and Austria to unite with England. He had declared himself Emperor of the French (1804), and no country, however remote, was any longer safe from his great ambition.

15. **Battle of Trafalgar** (1805).—Napoleon had now perceived that the first step to the Invasion of England was the destruction of the English fleet. It

was arranged that two great French fleets should assemble in the West Indies, and having joined the



THE "VICTORY."

Spanish fleets off the coast of Spain, that they should together attack the English, under Lord Nelson, in the English Channel. But the arrangement failed; the

French fleets missed one another, and Nelson, after chasing Admiral Villeneuve to the West Indies, and back again to France, at last destroyed his fleet utterly at the battle of *Trafalgar*, at the entrance of the Straits of Gibraltar. Lord Nelson was mortally wounded in the first attack, on board his ship, the *Victory*, but lived to hear that he had won the day. Before the battle began he had sent to all the ships the famous watchword, "England expects that every man will do his duty;" and his victory, by destroying the French fleet, delivered England from the terror of invasion, which for the last eighteen years had hung over the land.

16. **Battle of Austerlitz** (1805).—Even before this, Napoleon, seeing that the Invasion was impossible, had left Boulogne and marched rapidly against the Austrians. The Emperor fell upon one of their armies at Ulm, and taking it by surprise, forced it to surrender. Their other army retired into Hungary to join the Russians, but the combined forces were utterly overthrown by Napoleon at *Austerlitz* and compelled to supplicate for peace.

17. **The Death of Pitt** (1806).—Pitt sank under the shock caused by this disaster, which seemed to have completely ruined all his plans. For the remaining weeks of his life he wore what Fox, who was far too noble a man to exult over the humiliation of his rival, called "the *Austerlitz* look" on his face. His last words were, "My country! how I leave my country!"

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## CHAPTER XIII.

### NAPOLEON AND WELLINGTON.

1. **"All the Talents"** (1806).—On the death of Pitt the Tory ministry he had gathered round him could

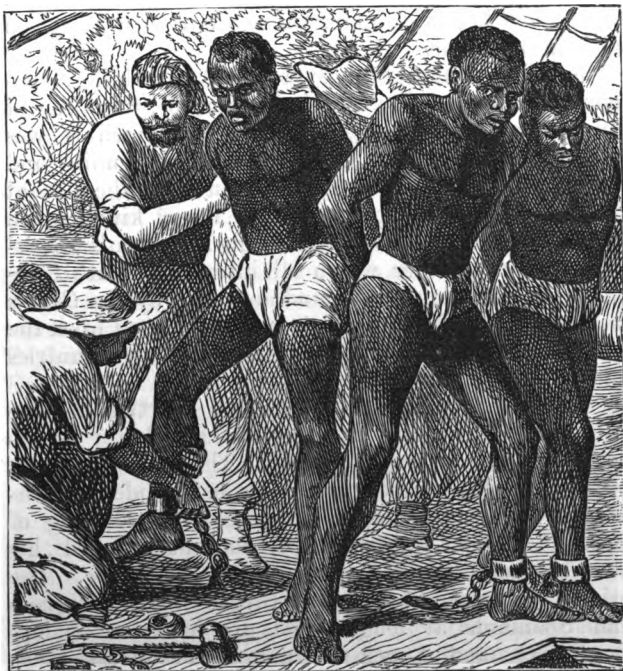
stand no more. George III. therefore called on Lord Grenville to form a ministry, and was forced to admit Fox to office, though his dislike to him was as strong as ever. The ministry was mainly Whig, but Grenville endeavoured to bring men of all parties together in it, and from the number of able men of which it was composed it was known as "the ministry of all the talents."

**2. Failure of Fox (1806).**—Now Fox had a sincere horror of war and a mistaken admiration for Napoleon. He had therefore always opposed Pitt's policy, and now, as Foreign Secretary, he at once tried to restore peace. Napoleon only deluded him with false promises, while he continued his conquests, and set up his brothers as kings in Naples and Holland. He forced Frederick William of Prussia into war with France, and utterly defeated him at the battle of *Jena*; he had issued the extraordinary *Berlin Decree*, by which all kingdoms subject to France were forbidden to buy any English goods, and all English property within them was confiscated. Indeed, Napoleon was now the master of Europe, and his main object was the overthrow of England. Fox died in bitter disappointment; the ministry was compelled to cast aside their former theories and fight on, though with little of the old success.

**3. Slave-trade and the Catholics.**—In home affairs the views of Fox and his friends rested on better foundation. They were pledged to the abolition of the English slave-trade, in which negroes were captured in Africa and sold to work in the colonies, and to the removal of the laws which prevented Roman Catholics from entering the public service. The former measure, long advocated by Fox and his friend William Wilberforce, was carried, though slavery itself was not made illegal till 1833; but the king resisted the relief of the

Catholics, and tried to make the ministry promise that they would never bring forward proposals of the sort again. Upon this they resigned.

4. **Tories in Power** (1807—1827).—The failures of



NEGROES CAPTURED FOR THE ENGLISH SLAVE-TRADE.

the Whigs abroad, the national resolve to fight out the war, and the opposition of the king and large classes of the people to *Catholic Emancipation*, brought back the Tories into power, and for twenty years kept them in office, under a succession of Prime Ministers: Portland



(1807), Perceval (1809), Lord Liverpool (1812). The weak health of their first chief, the Duke of Portland, did not allow him to take an active part in politics, and Mr. Spencer Perceval became the director of the new ministry. Perceval had been a friend of Pitt, and he at once began to carry on the war with Napoleon with fresh vigour.

5. **The Continental System.**—Meanwhile Napoleon had concluded with his former foe, the Czar of Russia, the secret *Treaty of Tilsitt*, in which it was arranged that Russia and France should unite and destroy England, and revive between them the ancient Empires of the East and West. Every kingdom in Europe was to be compelled to join Napoleon's *Continental System*, under which all intercourse with England was forbidden. England answered by the *Orders in Council*, by which naval war was declared upon the ports, the fleets, and the commerce of all countries which obeyed Napoleon.

6. **The French in Spain and Portugal.**—The only nations to whom England could look for assistance were Spain and Portugal. They had both been overrun by the French, and Napoleon, under circumstances of great treachery, had forced the old King of Spain, Charles IV., to resign, and had placed his own brother, Joseph Bonaparte, on the throne. The princes of Portugal had fled to Brazil. The Portuguese and Spaniards at length rose up in arms against the French, and it was determined to send assistance to the Peninsula from England.

7. **Portugal Rescued** (1808).—Sir Arthur Wellesley, who became afterwards the Duke of Wellington, landed on the western coast, and proceeded to march towards Lisbon, which he hoped to rescue from the French. Though the Portuguese proved at first to be untrustworthy soldiers, and though Wellesley was

greatly hindered by the incompetent generals whom the English Government put over him, he defeated the French at the battle of *Vimiero*, and drove them from Portugal.

8. **Struggle in Spain.**—Napoleon was preparing to invade Spain at the head of 400,000 men. The English ministers, relying on the empty boasts of the Spanish generals, sent Sir John Moore to help them, but only gave him 25,000 men. He advanced towards Salamanca, from which place he could, if necessary, advance and aid the Spaniards to defend Madrid. To his dismay he found that his Spanish allies fled before the French without striking a blow, and Napoleon entered the capital without the slightest resistance. Moore was thus left alone with his small body of men, and the huge French armies gathered round him. It was a race between the French and English for the sea, and, to their dismay, when the English arrived at the port of *Corunna*, they found that the ships in which they hoped to escape had not yet arrived. The delay gave Marshal Soult time to come up. Moore turned and fought him with the energy of despair, and so exhausted were the French by the pursuit, that they were driven back on all sides, and the English army embarked safely during the night, but without their brave general, who had fallen in the battle.

9. **The Tide Turns.**—But though thus triumphant in the Spanish Peninsula, Napoleon's fortune had now reached its height. All over Europe the determination to be freed from his resistless sway grew stronger. Secret societies were formed to overthrow him. The Tyrol rose in revolt. Austria broke from the tyranny of the Continental system and declared war once more; while, to create a diversion, England sent an expedition under Lord Chatham to recover the Netherlands from

the French, and another under Sir Arthur Wellesley to make a fresh effort to deliver the Peninsula. These various assaults strained Napoleon's power to the uttermost, but for the present he triumphed at almost every point. Austria collapsed before Napoleon at the battle of *Wagram*. Chatham's expedition to the Netherlands melted away in the pestilential swamps of *Walcheren*.

10. **The Peninsular War (1809—1814).**—Sir Arthur Wellesley alone prevailed against the French, and he was well supported by his brother, Lord Wellesley, who now succeeded Canning as Foreign Minister in the new Administration of which Perceval was the Premier (1809). After the departure of the English, two French armies had again invaded Portugal. They now retired before Wellesley; and he marched on Madrid, where King Joseph was thrown into great consternation. But the English commander found that the treacherous Spaniards would not supply him with provisions, and fled in the day of battle. The battle of *Talavera*, a town to the south-west of Madrid, resulted in a complete victory for the English. However, Sir Arthur Wellesley, who now became Lord Wellington, was compelled, by the advance of Marshal Soult, to retreat into the north of Portugal, and the greater part of Spain was recovered by the French.

11. **Portugal again Delivered (1810).**—In the following year Napoleon sent Massena, one of the greatest of his generals, to recover Portugal. Wellington, seeing that he could look for little help from the Portuguese, resolved to confine himself to the defence of Lisbon, their capital. For this purpose he made three strong lines of fortifications at *Torres Vedras*, one behind the other, so that if the first was taken he could fall back on the second. The plan was completely successful; Wellington defeated the French in the battle of *Busaco*, and then withdrew behind his first line, which

Massena attacked in vain. The Portuguese thereupon took courage, and assaulted the French troops on all sides. The invaders could get no provisions, and were finally obliged to retreat, with the loss of more than a third of their army.

12. **Advance on Spain (1811).**—Portugal was thus freed, and Wellington next set out to recover the two strong fortresses of Badajos and Ciudad Rodrigo, which held the two roads between Portugal and Spain. The English were checked, however, by the fierce and murderous fight at *Albuera*. The Spanish troops refused to come to their assistance in the battle, and it was not until the English had been driven back several times that, with a final and desperate charge, they won the day. Their victory was purchased at so terrible a cost that they were forced to abandon their undertaking. Nevertheless, from that time Wellington slowly but surely gained ground in Spain. Fortune had at last forsaken Napoleon, and he was compelled to withdraw his best troops from the Peninsula to meet the Germans and Russians. The two fortresses of Badajos and Ciudad Rodrigo were taken (1812). Wellington defeated Marshal Marmont at *Salamanca*, and entered Madrid in triumph. Yet once more Wellington found that the French armies were too strong for him, and he was forced to retreat for the last time into Portugal.

13. **Moscow Campaign (1812).**—Meanwhile war had broken out between France and Russia. Napoleon marched across Europe upon Moscow; the Russian armies retreated before him, hung about his troops as they advanced, inflicting great losses on detached bodies, but avoiding a battle whenever it was possible. Napoleon reached Moscow only to find its inhabitants vanished and the city in flames. Deprived of the shelter and the resources upon which he had relied to maintain his

troops during the terrible Russian winter, and with no enemy before him to defeat, Napoleon was compelled to retreat. The sufferings of the French army in their flight through the snows of the Russian plains were past description; thousands died of cold and starvation, the rest were shot by the wild Russian troops or taken prisoners. Napoleon at length deserted his troops, and reached Paris almost alone.

14. Forthwith the Emperors of Russia and Austria and the King of Prussia formed a final alliance against Napoleon. With unconquerable courage he collected a fresh army, and won battle after battle; but the odds were too strong for him, and after a crushing defeat at *Leipsic* (1813) he retreated into France with the allies upon his heels.

15. **Spain Delivered** (1813).—While the energies of Napoleon had been thus distracted, Wellington had delivered Spain. He crushed King Joseph at *Vittoria*, and drove the French headlong into France. Marshal Soult was sent to command the beaten French armies, and to stop, if possible, the passage of the allies through the Pyrenees into France. He performed his duty well, but the English troops were invincible, and slowly but surely forced their way through the mountain passes. The situation of the French was now utterly desperate; for the allies were steadily closing round Paris. Nevertheless, the undaunted Soult determined to risk one more battle, and met Wellington outside the town of *Toulouse*, where the English won, with great difficulty and loss, the last battle of the Peninsular War (1814).

16. **Peace Restored** (1814).—The allies, pouring into France from the east and south, entered Paris. Napoleon, overwhelmed on every side, resigned his crown and retired to the island of *Elba*, in the Mediterranean. Louis XVIII., a brother of the unfortunate

Louis XVI., who was executed during the Reign of Terror, was placed on the French throne, and statesmen from the different kingdoms met in the *Congress of Vienna* to re-establish order in Europe. They had much work to do, for there was hardly a nation in Europe whose king had not been deposed or whose lands had not been spoiled by the ambition of Napoleon.



ELBA.

**17. The Hundred Days.**—While, however, the Congress was still debating, Napoleon had escaped from Elba, landed at Cannes, in the south of France, and proceeded to Paris, where he soon found himself in command of an army of 130,000 soldiers, who had not forgotten the glorious victories gained under his generalship. Louis XVIII. and his court fled hastily to Brussels.

**18. Ligny and Quatre-bras.**—The allies at once

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took up arms. Wellington, with the Prussians under Blucher, undertook to defend Brussels and the Netherlands, and to invade France from thence. Napoleon therefore divided his army into two divisions; with one he attacked the Prussians, while the other, under Marshal Ney, was sent towards Brussels against the English. The Prussians retreated before Napoleon until they arrived at *Ligny*. There a great battle was fought, in which the French were successful; but Blucher retreated in good order northwards towards Wellington. Meanwhile Marshal Ney had attacked the English at *Quatre-bras*, but after a whole day's fighting he withdrew discomfited. In the evening he was joined by Napoleon, and the two prepared themselves for a great battle on the morrow.

**19. The Battle of Waterloo.**—The Duke of Wellington chose a position near the village of Waterloo. Wellington disposed his troops on some rising ground near Waterloo, over which the road passed to Brussels, and held his ground against the incessant attacks of the French until the arrival of Blucher and his Prussians. Towards evening Marshal Ney very nearly broke through the English line, and had Napoleon been able to send him help at the proper moment it would have gone hard with the English; he was, however, occupied in driving back the advancing Prussians. The last attack, made by the Imperial Guard, was attended with no better success; they were repulsed from the hill, the English pursued, and by evening the French were in full retreat, pursued by the Prussians. Once more the victorious allies marched in triumph to Paris, and Napoleon, after his *Hundred Days* of authority, was sent as a prisoner to the island of St. Helena, where seven years afterwards he died. Louis XVIII. was again placed on the throne of France.



**NAPOLEON ON THE FIELD OF WATERLOO (1815).**



## CHAPTER XIV.

## THE TORY ADMINISTRATION.

1. **The State of England.**—While Wellington had thus gloriously won peace for the unhappy countries of the Continent, in other quarters England met with great misfortunes. George III. had become hopelessly mad, and continued in that state for the remainder of his life. Soon afterwards he became blind as well, and used, it is said, to wander sadly about the rooms of his palace, music being the only thing from which he derived the least consolation. In 1810, therefore, George, Prince of Wales, became Regent in his stead. He was an unprincipled and dissolute man, who set the worst example to all classes by his wild behaviour. He would not live with his wife, the unfortunate Caroline of Brunswick, and when he became actual king (1820) he angered the people by refusing to recognise her as queen, and by proceeding to have her tried for pretended misconduct. Perceval, the Prime Minister, had been assassinated (1812), and had been succeeded by Lord Liverpool, who had but small sympathy for the sufferings of the people, which were due to bad harvests, and to the closing of foreign ports owing to the war. The people of the midland districts were starving, and in their despair went in bands over the country breaking machinery and doing much damage to property. These courses made the nation, which the horrors of the French Revolution had taught to uphold order above all things, less ready to help them.

2. **War with America.**—While the struggle in the Peninsula was draining the resources of England, the Government foolishly refused to accept the

demands of the Americans for improved conditions of trade, and a war broke out with them. On the whole, the English got the worst of the struggle. The Americans, indeed, were driven out of Canada, but their ships captured many of our vessels. However, the Peninsular War being over, many of the troops who had served in Spain were sent off to America, and the town of Washington was captured and partially destroyed. This, however, was the only success, and after they had been driven off from New Orleans by General Andrew Jackson, who afterwards became President of the United States, the English were glad to accept terms of peace, which were arranged by the Czar of Russia.

3. Nor did affairs improve much after peace had been restored. The Government still persisted in keeping up a large and costly army, and by their mismanagement of the revenue they wasted large sums of money. Meanwhile the nations of Europe were so poor that they could ill afford to purchase English goods, the harvests grew worse and worse, corn got dearer and dearer, while wages were decreased by the reckless relief of the poor out of the rates.

4. **Political Agitation.**—As the Government did nothing to relieve the troubles of the nation, many men, of whom Cobbett was the leader, revived the old agitation, which the French Revolution had checked, for the *Reform of Parliament* and the extension of the *Franchise* (or right of voting in a Parliamentary election) to the people generally. On the other hand, large classes, which the ministry represented, dreaded that any alteration in the Constitution would lead on to revolution. Meetings at which these grievances were discussed in very violent language were forbidden by Government, and secret societies were promptly formed all over England to agitate for reform. Large towns

which were not represented in Parliament were constantly the scenes of excited assemblies which ended in riot. One day some eighty thousand people collected at Manchester. Though their proceedings were perfectly orderly, the magistrates ordered the soldiers of the garrison to charge the crowd, and many people were horribly wounded. Harsh laws were passed to put a stop to all political assemblies. Meanwhile in Ireland the discontent excited by the laws against the Catholics grew rapidly under the leadership of Daniel O'Connell, and the land was agitated by the *Whiteboys* and other secret societies, who were perpetually at strife with the Protestant *Orangemen*.

5. **Lord Castlereagh.**—In the management of foreign affairs the ministry showed the same dread of any revolutionary movement. Lord Castlereagh was Foreign Secretary (1818—1822)—a very worthy man, but full of prejudice and rather narrow-minded. In the settlement of Europe at the Congress of Vienna his only objects were to secure England's advantages at sea and maintain the Balance of Power. But he cared nothing for the wishes of the people, who were then carved out amongst the princes of Europe. In many countries, encouraged by the French Revolution, the nations rose up against their sovereigns and demanded better laws and greater freedom. Naturally they turned for help to England, the home of liberty. But Castlereagh refused to help them. The Spaniards and Portuguese demanded a Constitutional Government. The people of Naples rose against their king, Ferdinand, but were compelled to receive him back again through fear of the Emperors of Austria and Russia and the King of Prussia, who had entered into the *Holy Alliance* (1814) to uphold the monarchies of Europe, and who resisted not only revolution, but all constitutional liberty. The people of Greece wished to throw off the

yoke of the Mahometans, but could not do it without help. The representatives of the Holy Alliance were arranging to send an army to aid Ferdinand VII. of Spain against his subjects, when Lord Castlereagh, in a fit of insanity, committed suicide.

**6. Revival of Prosperity.**—The opposition to the ministry grew stronger and stronger, their position being further weakened by the accession of the unpopular George IV. (1820—1830) and his treatment of Queen Caroline. Changes now fortunately took place which led to happier results. Peel succeeded the tyrannical Lord Sidmouth; Lord Wellesley, who had governed so well in India, became Lord-Lieutenant of Ire-



GEORGE IV.

land, his native country; Canning succeeded Castlereagh, and by refusing to have anything to do with the plans of the Emperors, put a stop to their attempts to crush the liberties of the weaker nations, while he resolutely kept England from unnecessary intervention in foreign affairs. Huskisson was as successful in managing commercial affairs as Canning was in dealing with foreign politics. By admitting the ships of foreign countries into our harbours on payment of the same duties as were imposed on our own, he vastly increased the means of transporting merchandise; taxes

were taken off the silk trade and the wool trade with the most beneficial result. A Bill, however, to remove the impediments to the importation of corn, and so lessen the price of food, was defeated by the influence of Wellington, who feared that it would ruin the agricultural classes. In the same way the *Catholic Relief Bill*, for relieving the Roman Catholics from the harsh laws which still oppressed them, though it passed through the House of Commons, was rejected by the House of Lords, chiefly owing to the dislike of the Duke of York, who, like his father, George III., felt conscientious objections to the measure.

7. **Ministry of Canning** (1827).—For a short time Canning himself succeeded Liverpool as Premier, but he died before he could carry further his projects. By steadfastly resisting the tyrannical schemes of the great rulers of Europe, Canning had made the name of England to be respected on the Continent, while by refraining from foreign warfare he gave the country that peace which she needed so much after the great struggle with Napoleon. He did not shrink, however, from sending troops to Portugal to protect it from the Kings of France and Spain, nor from compelling the Turks to abandon their designs against the Greeks (who still strove to deliver their country from the Mahometan rule), by the destruction of the Turkish fleet at *Navarino* (1827). He had recognised the independence of the Spanish colonies in South America, and had begun to prepare the way for the Emancipation of the Slaves. Canning's friends attempted to continue in power under Lord Goderich, but before long the Duke of Wellington became Prime Minister and formed a cabinet of Tories, most of whom had been in office under Lord Liverpool.

8. **Ministry of Wellington** (1828—1830).—The Duke showed that want of sympathy with nations

struggling for liberty and good government which had been so conspicuous in Lord Castlereagh's dealings with Naples and Greece. The Greeks were abandoned, and Russia undertook their cause alone; and when again Maria, the rightful Queen of Portugal, appealed to England for help against the usurper Miguel, Wellington refused to help her, and even prevented an expedition of her followers from securing her possessions in the islands of the Azores by sending English ships to fire upon them. He was attacked for upholding Polignac, the despotical minister of the French king, whose violence ended in a fresh revolution, which deprived the Bourbon, Charles X., of his throne, and set up in his stead a Limited Monarchy, under Louis Philippe, Duke of Orleans (1830).

9. **Religious Equality.**—Meanwhile the struggle of the Nonconformists and Catholics for admission to full rights of citizenship was at length won, and the religious differences which had arisen at the Reformation ceased to be recognised by the State. The Test and Corporation Acts, which had closed the public service to all but members of the Church, were repealed (1828). The agitation conducted by the *Catholic Association* under O'Connell in Ireland had increased rapidly. O'Connell was himself triumphantly elected for the county of Clare, but was necessarily refused admission to Parliament (1828). It then became evident that unless Roman Catholics were soon allowed to sit in Parliament there would be rebellion in Ireland. By the great influence of O'Connell, the Irish as yet refrained from insurrection; still, their passions were roused, and at any moment the Catholic Association might become an army.

10. The Duke of Wellington and Peel, who had hitherto opposed the demands of the Catholics, now determined to yield to them. George IV., however,

like his father before him, was steadily opposed to any concession to the Catholics, and it was not until the Duke had threatened to resign that the king consented to the measure. Catholics were admitted to both Houses of Parliament, and to all appointments in the State and the army, and allowed to exercise their religion freely and openly.

11. **The Death of George.**—During these commotions George IV. died. For many years he had been in ill-health, and partly on that account, and partly because of his unpopularity from the cruel treatment of Queen Caroline, he had lived in such strict retirement that he can hardly have been said to have reigned.

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## CHAPTER XV.

### CONSTITUTIONAL REFORM.

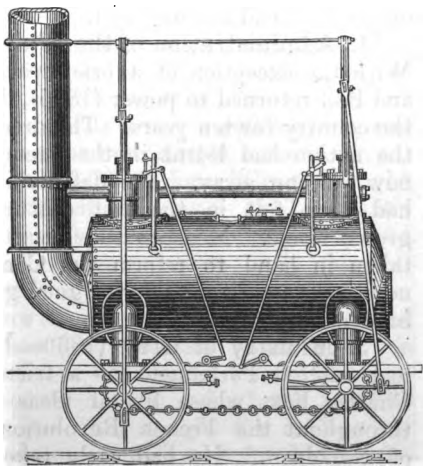
1. **William IV.** (1830—1837).—George was succeeded by his brother, William IV., who was in his sixty-fifth year. William had spent much of his early life at sea, and it was no doubt the adventurous life he led that had made his character so different to that of his brother. He was an easy-going and open-hearted prince, and soon became immensely popular with Englishmen of all classes.



WILLIAM IV. (B. 1765; D. 1837).

2. The first great event of his reign was the opening

of the Liverpool and Manchester Railway, which was the first line to carry passengers in England. It had been constructed with incredible perseverance across a great bog by a man of humble origin, George Stephenson, the first of those great railway engineers who have done so much for the comfort and prosperity of mankind. It was thought a wonderful thing in those days that Stephenson's best engine, "The Rocket," could go twenty miles an hour. The triumph of the opening ceremony was marred by a sad accident. Among those present were the Duke of Wellington and Mr. Huskisson, one of the most eminent and enlightened statesmen of the Tory party. The latter was standing on the line talking with the Duke during a pause in the journey, when suddenly another train came rushing past and struck him down. Huskisson died that evening, much regretted by all parties for his ability and honesty of purpose.



A STEPHENSON LOCOMOTIVE (1815).

ing on the line talking with the Duke during a pause in the journey, when suddenly another train came rushing past and struck him down. Huskisson died that evening, much regretted by all parties for his ability and honesty of purpose.

**3. Fall of the Tories (1830).**—In the elections for the new Parliament summoned by the king, a strong hostility to Wellington was shown. The extreme Tories attacked the ministry for yielding civil rights to the Catholics, while the Whigs and middle



classes, under Earl Grey, were now determined to obtain the reform of Parliament. To this Wellington would not consent. Meanwhile the Irish, excited by the Revolution in France, were instigated by O'Connell to demand the *Repeal of the Union*. Amidst these difficulties Wellington resigned, and a Whig ministry under Lord Grey succeeded the Tories in the offices they had so long held.

4. **Administration of the Whigs** (1830—1841).—With the exception of a brief space when Wellington and Peel returned to power (1835), the Whigs governed the country for ten years. The dread of change, which the nation had learnt in the French Revolution, was now passing away. The defects in the laws, which had been felt in the last century, had meanwhile grown worse. Measure after measure was accordingly taken in hand to reform the Constitution wherever necessary, and to provide for good government and the happiness of the people.

5. **Ministry of Grey** (1830—1834).—Lord Grey had entered Parliament as a friend and follower of Charles Fox, whose liberal ideas he had supported throughout the French Revolution and the empire of Napoleon. He had early taken up the cause of reform, and still supported it with all the ardour of his youth, though he was now in his sixty-seventh year. Among the friends who took office with him were Lord Palmerston, to whom was entrusted the management of foreign affairs, and Lord John Russell.

6. **Constitution of the House of Commons**.—It was high time that some steps were taken to change the way in which members of Parliament were chosen. Many large towns, which had grown up within the last two or three centuries, had no members; other places which had once been powerful but were now mere villages (several of them, indeed, like Old

Sarum and Luggershall, had no houses at all) sent two or three members to Parliament. Such places were called "pocket" boroughs, because, as a rule, they belonged to some great lord who could put the votes of the inhabitants in his pocket, as it were, and make them elect whomsoever he wished. Rich merchants would often buy a seat in Parliament from a nobleman for a certain sum of money. Another fault in the system of representation was that in different towns different classes had the right of voting. In some towns this privilege was enjoyed by most of the citizens, but in others it was confined to a very small number, and there were cases where one man elected himself.

7. **The Reform Bill.**—The Reform Bill was brought forward in the House of Commons by Lord John Russell. Fifty-six "pocket boroughs" were deprived of the privilege of sending members to Parliament, thirty more were only allowed to send one member. Thus 143 seats were destroyed; but the privilege of electing members was given instead to many of the large towns and divisions of counties which, from the numbers of their population had a far better right to it than small villages. In boroughs the electors included everybody who paid £10 rent for his house; and in the counties, not only the absolute owners of land, but leaseholders and tenants paying a rent of £50 were henceforth to vote. Vast numbers of the middle classes, who had hitherto had very little voice in political affairs, were now made as powerful as the gentry. Reform Bills were also granted to Scotland and Ireland; the number of Irish members being increased from 100 to 105, and of Scotch from 45 to 53.

8. **The Contest (1831).**—The Reform Bill was not passed without great difficulty. The king hated it, and so did the House of Lords. The Lords rejected it. Thereupon the country became terribly excited; the

London mob attacked the Duke of Wellington's house, and at Bristol there was a riot for three days which was only dispersed by the soldiers, who fired on the crowd and killed many of them. The Bill was again brought into the House of Lords and again rejected, whereupon Lord Grey and his friends resigned. There seemed every probability that a civil war would break out in many parts of England, and the king requested the



LORD PALMERSTON.

Duke of Wellington to form a ministry, but he could not persuade any of his friends to take office, so Grey's ministry came in again. Then, by the personal advice of the king, those Lords who opposed the Bill abstained from voting against it, and so it became law.

### 9. Alliance with France.

—Meanwhile Lord Palmerston formed an alliance between England and France, which has continued with hardly any interruption down to the present day. Aided by the French fleet and an army, which took the great town of Antwerp, Lord Palmerston succeeded in forcing the King of Holland to give freedom to Belgium. It was formed into a separate kingdom, and Leopold, Prince of Saxe-Coburg, was placed on the throne. Acting with the same cordiality, the two Governments aided Maria of Portugal to drive out her wicked uncle Miguel; and in the same way they supported Isabel of Spain in a war against her uncle Charles, in which, after some time, she triumphed. A great alliance was formed in 1834 between France, Spain, Portugal, and England in opposition to Russia and Austria.

10. **Freedom of the Slaves** (1833).—The abolition of slavery in all parts of the empire, for which Wilberforce and others had laboured for years, was now at last carried, and the losses of the slave-owners were made up by the gift of a large sum of money.

11. **O'Connell and Irish Affairs**.—Meanwhile the eloquence of O'Connell was directed towards the Repeal or dissolution of the Union between England and Ireland, so that the Irish might have a Parliament of their own again, to which both Catholics and Protestants should be admitted. Few in England supported him, because all sensible men saw that the separation of the two Parliaments would breed great ill-feeling between the two countries, and would inevitably end in war. On the other hand, the irritation of the Catholics against the Protestant Church, to which they had to contribute their tithes and rates, seemed to many statesmen well founded. Some of the grievances connected with the Established Church were removed. Meanwhile O'Connell continued to hold huge meetings, which he addressed in passionate language, until he had stirred up fierce hostility to the English amongst the ignorant peasants, which led to many terrible crimes of violence. The peasants murdered the tithe-collectors and ill treated the Protestant clergy. The liberties which the Irish possessed in common with the English had to be restrained for a time by a *Coercion Act*, before the outrages and murders which were prevalent in all parts of the country were effectually checked.

12. **Lord Melbourne's Ministry** (1834).—The difficulties of ruling Ireland broke up the Grey ministry, for the various sections could not agree as to the proper way of dealing with the Church and with the nation. Lord Grey resigned. Lord Melbourne, a very easy-going politician, was persuaded to become Prime Minister, and most of the Whig ministry took office under him.

During their short time of office they passed the *New Poor Law*, which in time did much to raise the labouring classes from their miserable condition. Before this the working man had been taught to rely on the parish instead of on himself. The more children he had, the more relief he got, so that he was encouraged to marry



LORD MELBOURNE.

early, and to squander his earnings, while his receipt of parish relief enabled employers to offer him less wages than his work was worth; and idleness had been encouraged by allowing whole

families to receive pay from the parish at their own homes. All this was now changed. If a strong man needed relief he must go to the workhouse and earn food by labour, and the employers soon found that they must pay their labourers full wages. This law was thought cruel at the time; but although it is an unchristian act to allow any one to starve, yet it is equally cruel to encourage sloth and habits of improvidence.

13. **Trades Unions.**—The working classes at this

time were in a state of great commotion. They had looked to the Reform Bill to heal all their sorrows, but they had been much disappointed, and they were alarmed at the supposed severity of the New Poor Law; besides, times were bad, and in many cases manufacturing masters were harsh and tyrannical. Trades Unions were formed, or societies in which working men combined together for various purposes, especially to obtain higher wages. Their acts were not always justifiable, and it was soon found that old laws existed which seemed to forbid any combination of workmen to better their position. These laws have gradually been altered, and workmen may combine as they please, provided that they do not tyrannise over their neighbours or any other people.

14. **The Conservative Ministry.**—Before long a quarrel broke out between Lord Durham and Lord Brougham, two members of the ministry, and the king, who disliked the Whigs, dismissed them. Thereupon the king, consulting his own wishes rather than those of his people, sent for the Duke of Wellington, and asked him to form a ministry; he, however, preferred placing Sir Robert Peel at the head of affairs. The new ministry lasted a very short time, for its supporters in the House of Commons were the minority. It is remarkable chiefly for the fact that this time Peel's party abandoned the title of Tory, and took that of *Conservative*, which they still bear. They accepted the necessity of Reform, and, whilst resisting all extreme demands, especially any which seemed to them injurious to religion, they were ready to pass measures of obvious necessity. But Peel was outvoted on several occasions, and was at length compelled to resign.

15. **Return of the Whigs (1835—1841).**—Thus Lord Melbourne and his friends assumed power once more, and in spite of difficulties and weakness, they

continued to manage the affairs of England until the year 1841. Among the laws which they carried during the remainder of the reign of William IV. were the following :—Dissenters were allowed to marry in their own places of worship instead of in the parish church, a measure which was due in the first place to Sir Robert Peel ; by the reform of the corporations or governing bodies of towns, large classes of citizens were given a share in the management of local affairs ; and, lastly, by the Tithes Act, the burdensome method of contributing to the support of the clergyman of the parish by giving him a certain quantity of produce was abolished, and a money payment substituted.

**16. The Death of William IV.**—In the year 1837 King William died. He had on the whole reigned over this country well. He was by no means a clever man, and by his opposition to the Reform Bill he proved that he sometimes failed to see where the true interests of the country lay ; still his heart was in the right place, and that of itself prevented him from making any bad mistakes.

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## CHAPTER XVI.

LORD MELBOURNE AND SIR ROBERT PEELE.

**1. Victoria (1837).**—William IV. left no children, and was therefore succeeded by his niece Victoria, the daughter of the Duke of Kent, who was the fourth son of King George III. The young queen was now in her nineteenth year ; she had been carefully educated by her mother, the Duchess of Kent, and had lived a quiet and happy life at Kensington Palace. The accession of a lady to the throne, who was known to be so gentle and good, was the signal for a general outburst of joy in all parts

of the British Empire, and the hopes that were raised in men's hearts that day have not been disappointed.

2. **Separation of Hanover.**—The law of Hanover did not allow a woman to rule, so the queen's title to that kingdom passed to her uncle, Ernest, Duke of Cumberland. The separation of the two crowns was a very good thing for England, for it saved us from the necessity of interfering in the internal concerns of Germany. It was the destiny of the German States, and of Hanover amongst them, gradually to be gathered into a single nation under the guidance of Prussia. This was finally accomplished after the conquest of France by the united German armies, when the King of Prussia was proclaimed German Emperor (1871).



CORONATION OF QUEEN VICTORIA.

3. **Lord Melbourne's Ministry.**—

Though they had lost the confidence of the people, and were often taunted for their weakness by their more advanced followers, who called themselves *Radicals*, Lord Melbourne and his friends still remained in power. In the year 1839, however, they were compelled to resign office, and the task of forming a new ministry was entrusted to the Tory leader, Sir Robert Peel. He requested that the queen should



dismiss the ladies of her household, who were all relations of Whig statesmen, and appoint in their stead ladies of his choice. The queen refused to part with her personal friends at Peel's suggestion; he therefore declined to form a government, and the Whigs continued in office.

4. **The Penny Post.**—At this time a change was made in the post-office which spread much happiness throughout the kingdom. Before this it had cost tenpence or a shilling to send a letter to a distant part of England. But Rowland Hill, the son of a poor schoolmaster, considered that so many more people would write if every letter was carried for a penny, that thus the Government would gain in the end. In 1840 Hill's plan was adopted, and was found to be a great success.

5. **Civil War in Canada.**—In spite of the loyalty with which the young queen was received by her subjects, the first years of her reign were by no means years of peace and happiness. A civil war broke out between her French and English subjects in Canada, the former demanding changes in the government. It was not suppressed without difficulty. Upper and Lower Canada were then made into one province, and its capital fixed at Montreal (1840). Since then all the English territory in North America, from the Atlantic to the Pacific Ocean, have been gathered into a great Confederation, which is ruled by a Parliament at Ottawa, under a Governor appointed by the British sovereign.

6. **The Repeal Movement.**—In Ireland, O'Connell continued his agitation for the repeal of the union. In order to strengthen his cause he allied himself with the teetotallers, who had been persuaded in thousands to take the temperance pledge by a good priest named Father Matthew. The Repeal Association soon numbered thousands of members, who paid a regular tax to

maintain the agitation. A rebellion seemed imminent. O'Connell was arrested, condemned to pay a heavy fine and to a year's imprisonment; but the House of Lords reversed the sentence, and he was set at liberty. However, O'Connell's influence in Ireland declined, partly because he would never allow the agitation which he kept smouldering to break out into actual revolt. His mind failed, and some few years afterwards he died on his way to Rome.

7. **Chartism** (1838—1848).—Even more dangerous was the outbreak of what was called Chartism in England. The leaders of the discontented workmen drew up the *People's Charter*, in which they demanded that every man should have a vote, that there should be fresh Parliaments every year, and that members should be paid. Riots broke out in several places; but they were suppressed, their leaders were transported, and the excitement died away. Several years later the movement was revived; the Chartists, headed by a wild Irishman named Feargus O'Connor, marched to the House of Commons and presented a huge petition. It was quietly accepted, and that was the last of Chartism.

8. **Marriage of the Queen** (1840).—In 1840 Queen Victoria married her cousin, Prince Albert of Saxe-Coburg, who was afterwards known in England as the Prince Consort. The union was a very happy one, and the prince devoted himself heart and soul to the good of his new countrymen. Albert Edward, Prince of Wales, was born in the following year.

9. **War with Afghanistan**.—About this time Dost Mohammed, who had usurped the throne of Afghanistan (a mountainous country to the north-west of India), was suspected of favouring the designs of Russia against the Indian Empire. An English army invaded the country and overthrew Dost Mohammed. The

Afghans, however, rose in revolt. The British regiments at last agreed to retire; but, as they struggled through the snow, they were surrounded in a narrow pass by the mountain tribes, and were cruelly massacred or made prisoners. Only one man escaped. In the following spring, however, General Pollock re-entered the country and destroyed the citadel of the capital, Cabul. Ninety-five prisoners were saved, and the English then withdrew.



AFGHANS.

#### 10. War with China.

—Another eastern war was on our hands at the same time. Large quantities of opium (a product of the white poppy, which, when eaten or smoked, produces a kind of intoxication) were annually exported to China from India. Now the Emperor of China determined to stop the trade, and the English Government resented this step as an interference with the freedom of commerce. In 1840 war broke out, and soon the

great town of Canton was captured by the English. Finally peace was made, the emperor was compelled to pay the expenses of the war, to give up for ever the island of Hong Kong to the English, and to open four additional ports for trade.

**11. The Anti-Corn-Law League.**—Meanwhile at home there was much discontent with the Corn Laws, under which a heavy duty was laid upon imported corn.

As there was not enough corn grown in England to satisfy the wants of the country, the price of bread was thus largely increased. An Anti-Corn-Law League was formed in 1841 by some powerful Manchester *free-traders*, of whom the chief orators were Mr. Richard Cobden and Mr. John Bright.

12. **The Irish Famine.**—A terrible disaster in Ireland hastened the triumph of the free-traders. In those days the Irish peasants lived entirely on potatoes. In 1845 the potato disease broke out, and it seemed as if the whole race would be starved; the restrictions of the corn laws added immensely to the price of food. At length the efforts of charitable people were, to a certain extent, successful; supplies of corn and meat checked the famine, but not before a quarter of the Irish people had died, either from hunger or from a deadly pestilence that broke out at the same time.

13. **Peel and the Corn Laws.**—Meanwhile the Whig ministry of Lord Melbourne had been supplanted by that of the Conservative Sir Robert Peel (1841). He at once prepared to deal with the corn laws. Several of his ministers were violently opposed to him on this point; but as the Liberal party could not form a ministry, Peel remained in power. He determined not to alter, but to entirely abolish the corn laws. A party of *Protectionists*, so called because they proposed to protect British products against the competition of foreign countries, was formed by Mr. Disraeli and other Conservatives. Supported, however, by the Liberals, as well as by the Duke of Wellington, Peel carried his great measure, and by so doing conferred a lasting benefit on his country (1846). Since then the English people have drawn their food from all over the world—wherever it can be bought most cheaply; and now more than one-half of the bread we eat is grown for us in foreign lands.

## CHAPTER XVII.

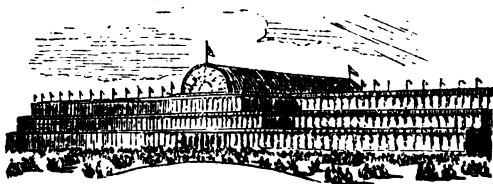
## OUR OWN TIMES.

1. **Lord John Russell's Ministry** (1846—1852).—The difficulties of governing Ireland, and the refusal of the various parties which had so far supported Peel to join him in enforcing order there with a strong hand, had compelled Peel to resign (1846). The Whigs, therefore, had returned to office under Lord John Russell. They effected, however, little or nothing; and after various failures and defeats resigned. Several statesmen tried to form a permanent ministry, but without success. There seemed to be no one to take up the government. Peel had died in 1850; the aged Wellington—now past eighty—died also in the year 1852. At length Lord Aberdeen formed a Coalition Ministry (1852—1855), containing both Liberals and Conservatives.

2. **Young Ireland**.—Meanwhile a small band of Irishmen, calling themselves *Young Ireland*, made a foolish attempt to cast off the yoke of England (1848). They were encouraged by the example of the French, who had driven out their weak king Louis Philippe and established a Republic once more. Their leaders were Smith O'Brien, a generous but weak man, and John Mitchel. The latter, a writer in the *United Irishman* newspaper, was far the more dangerous. He attempted to stir up a rebellion, but was arrested and condemned to transportation for fourteen years. Smith O'Brien commenced a rising in Tipperary, but was promptly caught. He was condemned to death, but was transported and afterwards pardoned.

3. **The Exhibition** (1851).—Amidst these difficulties the brightest event of the time was the *Great*

*Exhibition* of 1851. Its success was largely due to the energy and ability of the Prince Consort. Europe was at peace, and it was felt that intercourse and commerce between nations would bind them to each other. Accordingly a huge glass building was set up in Hyde Park, where beautiful manufactures and works of art from all parts of the world were brought.



THE GREAT EXHIBITION OF 1851.

All men flocked to see them, and understood for the first time the arts and the characteristics of other lands.

4. **The Crimean War** (1853—1855).—During Lord Aberdeen's ministry England became involved in a war with Russia. Its object was to deliver the Turks from the Russians, who threatened to overwhelm them. It was thought that if the Russians seized Constantinople they would become powerful in the Mediterranean, and thus might cut us off from India. Napoleon III., who had lately made himself Emperor of the French, and who wished to make himself popular in France by a glorious war, eagerly joined in the enterprise.

5. **The Crimea**.—The French and English determined to take the great fort of *Sebastopol*, in the Crimea, which sheltered the Russian fleet; and in the battle of the *Alma* they drove the Russians from the heights on which they were entrenched. The English suffered terribly from disease and want of provisions, but they won a second victory at *Balaclava*. Through an unfortunate blunder, the Light Brigade of Cavalry, about 600 men, were sent to take the Russian guns in the face of the whole Russian army. These

heroes rode into "the valley of death" without a murmur. They succeeded in their task, they spiked the guns, but only 198 men returned. Another glorious victory was won upon the heights of *Inkerman*.

6. **Palmerston Prime Minister** (1855—1858).—Meanwhile the Coalition Ministry had mismanaged everything, and the nation indignantly turned against it. An attack on the Russians in the Baltic was a failure, in the Crimea the soldiers were not properly supplied with clothes and food, and the sick and wounded were dying for want of medical attendance. At last Aberdeen resigned, and Lord Palmerston became Prime Minister. Miss Florence Nightingale and her nurses went out to tend the sick and wounded, and by their noble devotion endeared themselves for ever to all English soldiers. The siege of Sebastopol, which lasted nearly a year, was pressed forward. The little kingdom of Sardinia joined the alliance. Soon afterwards the Czar Nicholas died, it was said of a broken heart. At length the Russians withdrew by night. The victorious allies entered Sebastopol, and peace was then made.

7. **The Indian Mutiny** (1857).—In the following year England became engaged in a yet more terrible struggle. The Sepoys, or native troops in India, rebelled against our government, and massacred all the Europeans on whom they could lay their hands. However, the English regiments in the mutinous districts threw themselves into the towns of Lucknow and Cawnpore, and prepared to resist to the last, while Delhi, the head-quarters of the rebels, was captured, and thus the mutiny was prevented from spreading over the rest of India.

8. Cawnpore, however, was betrayed to the rebels by a native chief named Nana Sahib. He agreed to allow the English to depart unharmed; but they were

all captured and murdered. Meanwhile Sir Henry Havelock, a noble and heroic soldier, marched to the rescue of Lucknow, and after winning several battles against tremendous odds, he entered the town. Sir Colin Campbell arrived with more soldiers and joined Havelock ; and gradually, as more troops arrived from England, the rebellion was extinguished.

9. The danger, however, had been so serious that the English Government resolved to take the management of affairs out of the hands of the East India Company, which had till then possessed India. A minister, called the Secretary of State for India, was appointed to direct Indian affairs in Parliament, and Lord Canning, who had crushed the mutiny, was sent out as the first *Viceroy*.

10. **Home Affairs.**—Attention was now again recalled to the needs of our own people, especially to the extension of the Franchise to larger classes, and to the lightening of taxation. Palmerston did not care deeply about these questions ; but they were keenly taken up by his subordinates, Lord John Russell and Mr. Gladstone. The Liberals, however, were defeated in Parliament, and had to resign. A Conservative ministry was formed, of which Lord Derby was the leader, and Mr. Disraeli the most able supporter ; but the next year it was in turn defeated upon a Reform Bill proposed by Mr. Disraeli, Parliament was dissolved, and a large Liberal majority was elected. Thereupon Lord Palmerston again became Prime Minister until his death (1859—1865), with Mr. Gladstone as Chancellor of the Exchequer. A Reform Bill proposed by Lord John Russell fell to the ground through Palmerston's indifference, but Mr. Gladstone was able to effect many financial reforms, and in particular arranged for the removal of the duty on paper, whereby it became possible to publish good books and newspapers cheaply.



**11. Death of the Prince Consort.**—At the end of the year 1861 the Prince Consort died. He had been a high-minded and noble prince, and a true



THE PRINCE CONSORT.

friend to England. Amongst his greatest services to this country was his encouragement of education and art.

**12. Foreign Difficulties.**—

The years of Lord Palmerston's ministry were full of disturbance abroad. The Italians, inspired by General Garibaldi, rose against the Austrians, who had long ruled over them, and after a series of victories and

defeats Victor Emmanuel, the Duke of Savoy and King of Sardinia, with the help of his great statesman Cavour, gained the crown of all Italy (1861). Rome, however, still remained under the sovereignty of the Pope; but ten years later Victor Emmanuel took possession of it, and fixed there the capital of the Italian Kingdom (1871). A terrible civil war also broke out amongst our kinsmen in America (1861—1866). The statesmen of the Northern States, led by President Lincoln, wished to do away with slavery; but the Southern States, or Confederates, would not

consent, and wished to have a government of their own. After a terrible struggle the North was victorious, and compelled the Confederates to submit. The Poles also revolted against Russia, and were cruelly crushed; the Danes were defeated by the Prussians, and deprived of Schleswig-Holstein. During all these perils, until his death in 1865, Palmerston showed great firmness and ability in the management of foreign affairs.

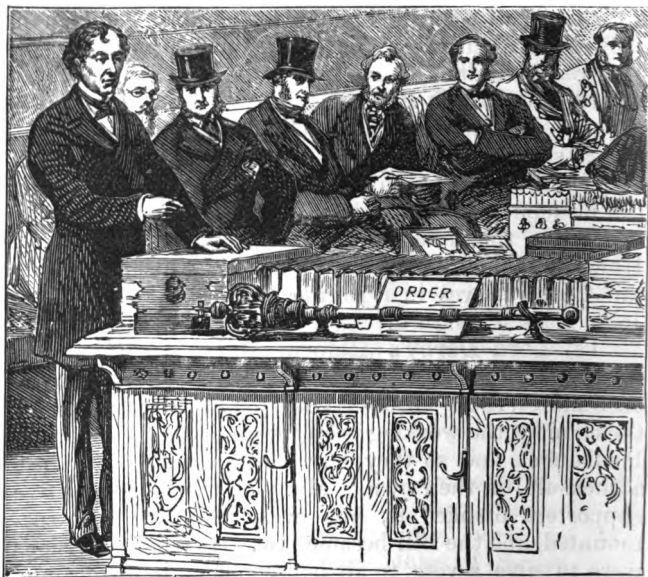
13. **Lord John Russell** (1865).—The task of leading the Liberal party now fell upon Lord John Russell, a staunch supporter of the cause of reform. A new Reform Bill, which was to carry still further the principles of Lord Grey's great Act, was brought forward in the House of Commons by Mr. Gladstone. However, a large body of dissatisfied Liberals joined the Conservatives in rejecting the measure, and Lord John Russell resigned.

14. **Lord Derby's Reform Bill**.—The Conservatives, under Lord Derby and Mr. Disraeli, came into power once more (1866—1868). They found that throughout the country the working people were eager for a vote in Parliament, and so they determined again to introduce a measure of their own. Many of their Conservative supporters disliked it, but every difficulty was surmounted, and the Bill became law. Its chief provisions were to give a vote to all householders in towns, and to grant a third member to the towns of Manchester, Liverpool, Birmingham, and Leeds.

15. **The Fenian Outbreak** (1867).—Meanwhile a dislike to English rule had been kept alive among the lower classes of Irishmen. A secret association was formed among them called the Fenians, and it was supported by money from the Irish who had emigrated to America. At length, in 1867, it was resolved that there should be a general rising all over Ireland; the

attempt, however, was a total failure, and gradually the Fenian agitation died away for awhile.

16. **Mr. Gladstone Prime Minister** (1868—1874). —Mr. Gladstone, who was then in opposition, now devoted his attention to the condition of Ireland, and



MR. DISRAELI ADDRESSING THE HOUSE OF COMMONS.

embarked on a series of most sweeping measures, designed to restore content and prosperity in that unhappy country. In the year 1868 Lord Derby became dangerously ill, and resigned office, so Mr. Disraeli, who had so long and faithfully served under him, became Prime Minister ; but he was quickly overthrown by Mr. Gladstone, who became Prime Minister

for the second time. The first step of Mr. Gladstone was to disestablish the Anglican Church in Ireland; for the Irish were irritated that the State should support a form of religion in which three-fourths of the Irish people did not believe, and keep up a body of clergy which was three times more numerous than necessary. Next an Irish Land Bill was introduced, the object of which was to secure tenants in the farms they rented, so that they could not be deprived of them by the owners without compensation.

**17. Reforms in England.**—Several important measures were also enacted for England. The Ballot Act allowed men to vote secretly instead of openly in elections. The Licensing Act limited the hours during which public-houses might be open, and thereby much drunkenness was prevented. Mr. Forster's Education Act provided schooling for all boys and girls from the ages of five to twelve, partly, and in some cases wholly, at the cost of the Government. Thus learning was spread all over the land, and it is now the parents' own fault if their children are not able to read and write thoroughly at the age when they must begin to earn their daily bread.



MR. W. E. FORSTER.

**18. The Alabama Question.**—During the war between the Northern and Southern States, some ships, notably one named the *Alabama*, built in England for the Southerners, had done much harm to the fleet of the Northerners, and had certainly prolonged the strife. The United States now demanded satisfaction; and to

avoid a war, the English Government decided that the question should be referred for *Arbitration* to a court of five ministers: from the United States, England, Italy, Switzerland, and Brazil. The Court decided against England, and a vast sum was paid to America.

19. **Mr. Disraeli's Ministry** (1874—1880).—Gradually the Liberal Government became unpopular, partly because the nation was for a time tired of change. The Conservatives were victorious at the general election of 1874, and Mr. Disraeli once more became Prime Minister. Two years later he was raised to the Peerage under the title of Earl of Beaconsfield.

20. **The Russo-Turkish War.**—The war between Russia and Turkey proved the chief event of his ministry. The Russians conquered the Turks, and seemed to be aiming at Constantinople. The English grew anxious as to the communications between England and India, as at the time of the Crimean War. The English fleet was sent to Constantinople, and the island of Cyprus was occupied. Then a conference was opened at Berlin, at which the independence of the Christian States north of the Balkan mountains was recognised, but Turkey was still secured in the possession of a large European Empire.

21. **General Election of 1880.**—The Conservative administration closed with two hard-fought wars against the Afghans on the Indian frontier, and the Zulus of South Africa. Parliament was dissolved in 1880. A large majority of Liberals were elected, and, under the leadership of Mr. Gladstone, resumed the control of the government of the British Empire.





